



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>

TX 937.4 .C599
Clarke, Michael,
Story of Caesar /

Stanford University Libraries



3 6105 04934 3606

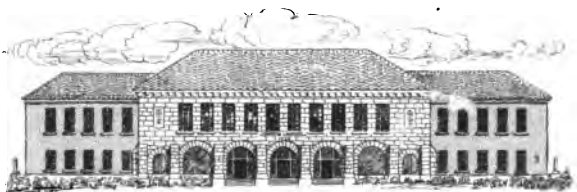
ECLECTIC SCHOOL READINGS

THE STORY OF CÆSAR



DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
CLASADO HYDROLOGICAL UNIVERSITY

NEW YORK • CINCINNATI • CHICAGO
AMERICAN • BOOK • COMPANY



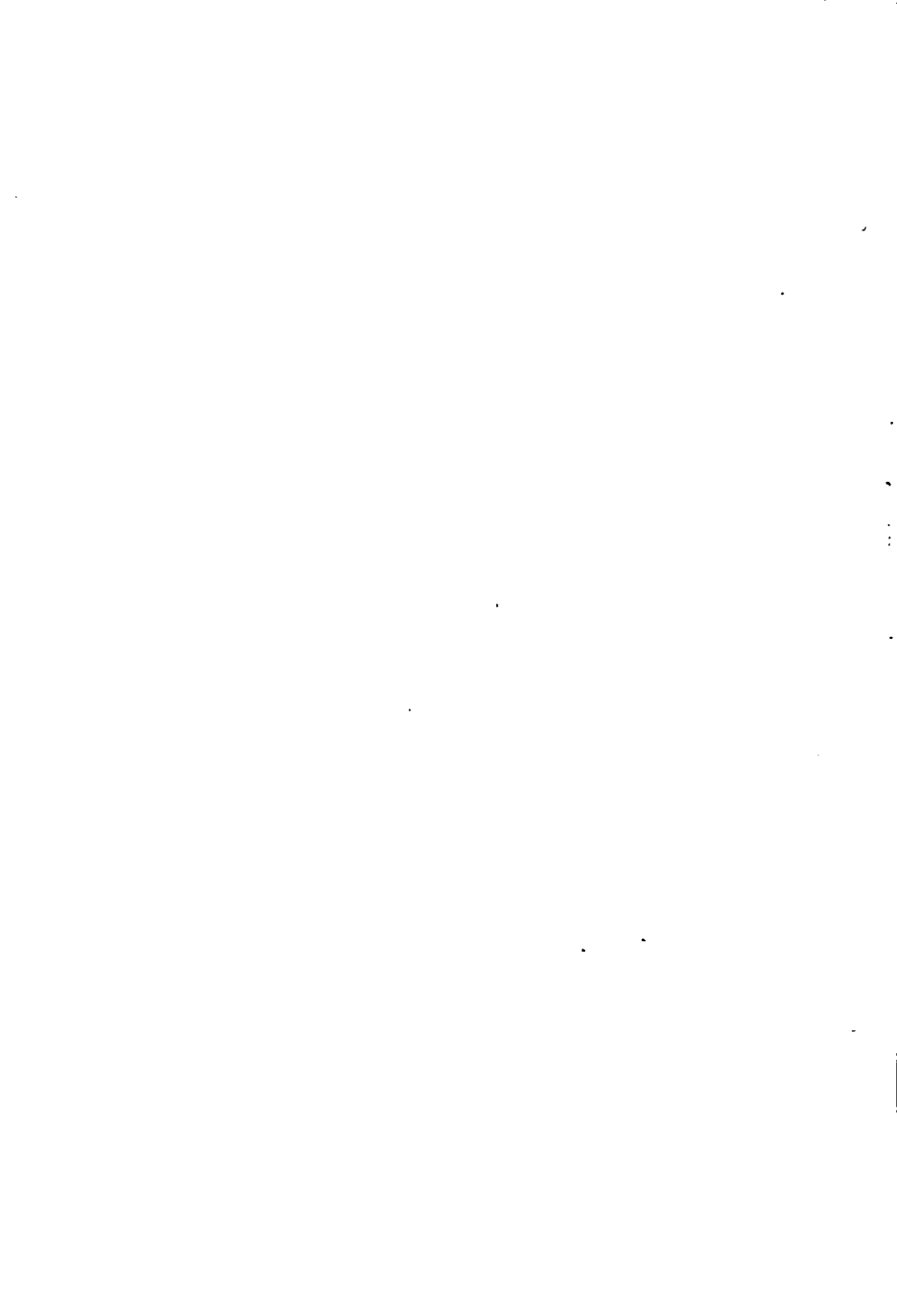
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
LIBRARY

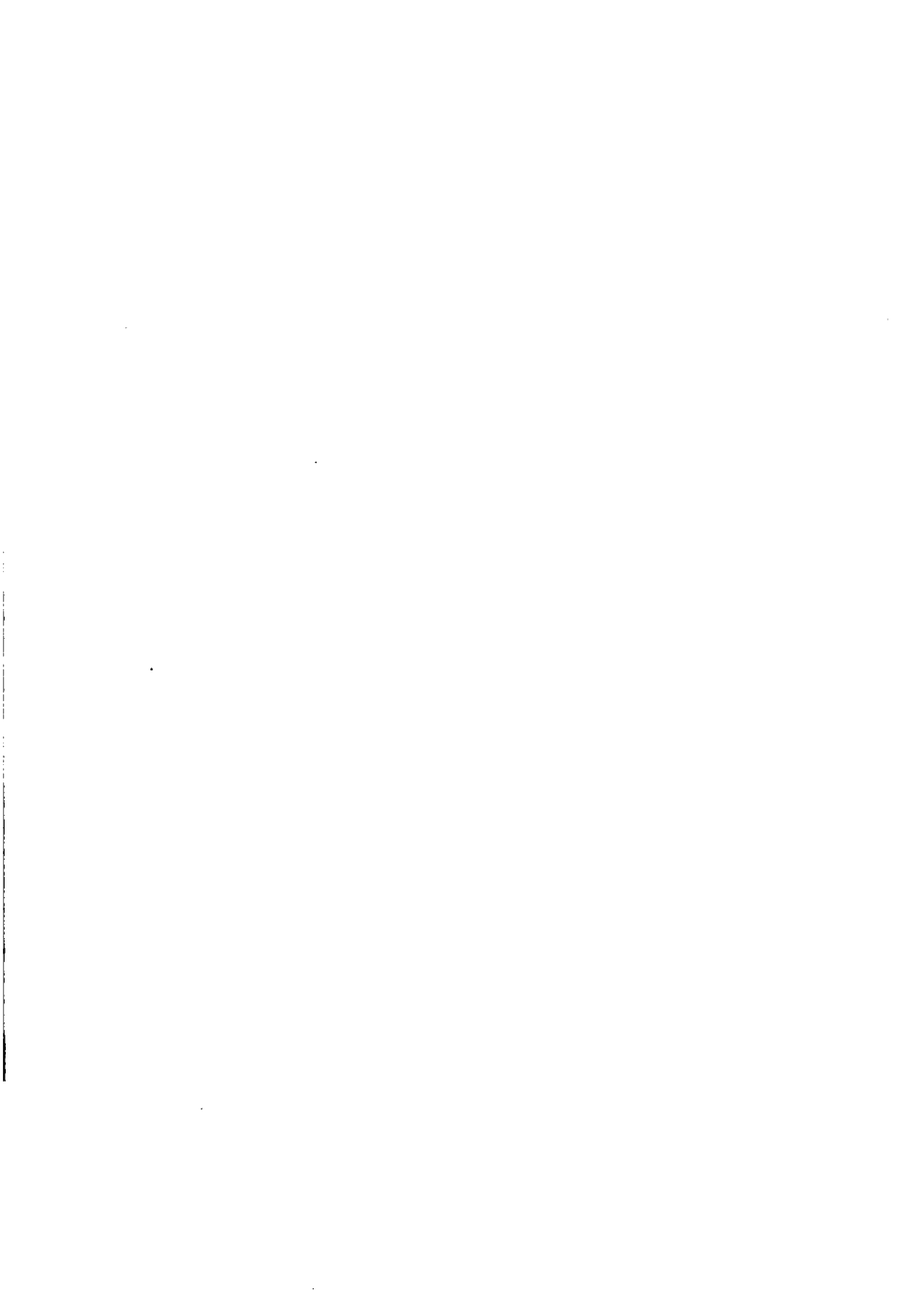
TEXTBOOK COLLECTION
GIFT OF
THE PUBLISHERS



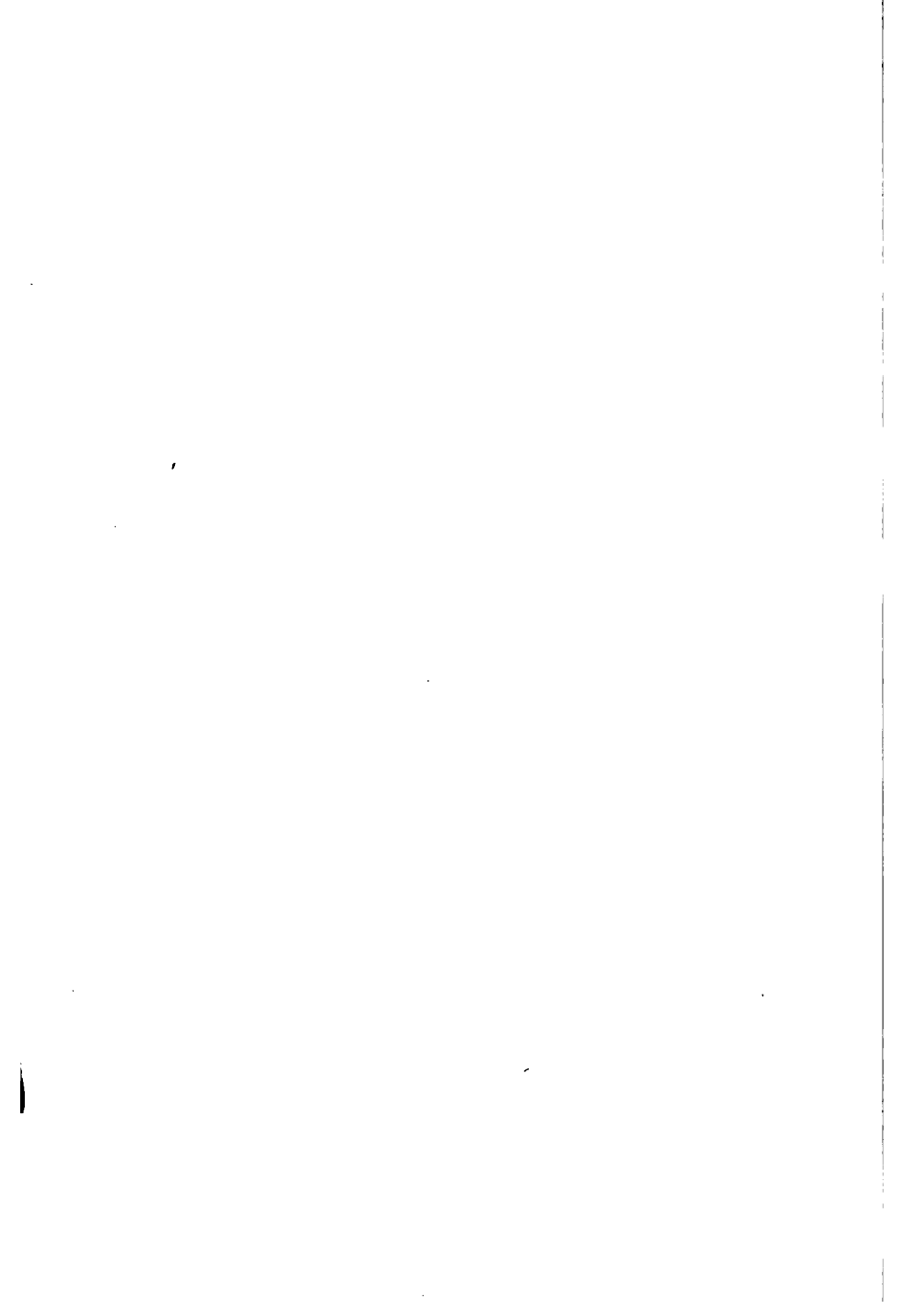
STANFORD UNIVERSITY
LIBRARIES

The retail price of this book is \$













CAIUS JULIUS CÆSAR.

ECLECTIC SCHOOL READINGS

STORY OF CÆSAR

BY

M. CLARKE

AUTHOR OF "STORY OF TROY," "STORY OF ÆNEAS."

~~DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION~~
LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY

NEW YORK ·· CINCINNATI ·· CHICAGO
AMERICAN BOOK COMPANY

32

*LIBRARY OF THE
LELAND STANFORD JR. UNIVERSITY.*

a.38064.

COPYRIGHT, 1898, BY
AMERICAN BOOK COMPANY.

Story of Caesar.

W. P. I

C

CONTENTS.

	PAGE
CHAPTER I.	
ROME BEFORE CÆSAR	7

CHAPTER II.	
EARLY LIFE OF CÆSAR	21

CHAPTER III.	
CONSULSHIP OF "JULIUS AND CÆSAR"—A ROMAN TRIUMPH . .	31

CHAPTER IV.	
CONQUESTS IN GAUL	49

CHAPTER V.	
A FAMOUS BRIDGE—CÆSAR IN BRITAIN	67

CHAPTER VI.	
CÆSAR CROSSES THE RUBICON—"THE DIE IS CAST"	82

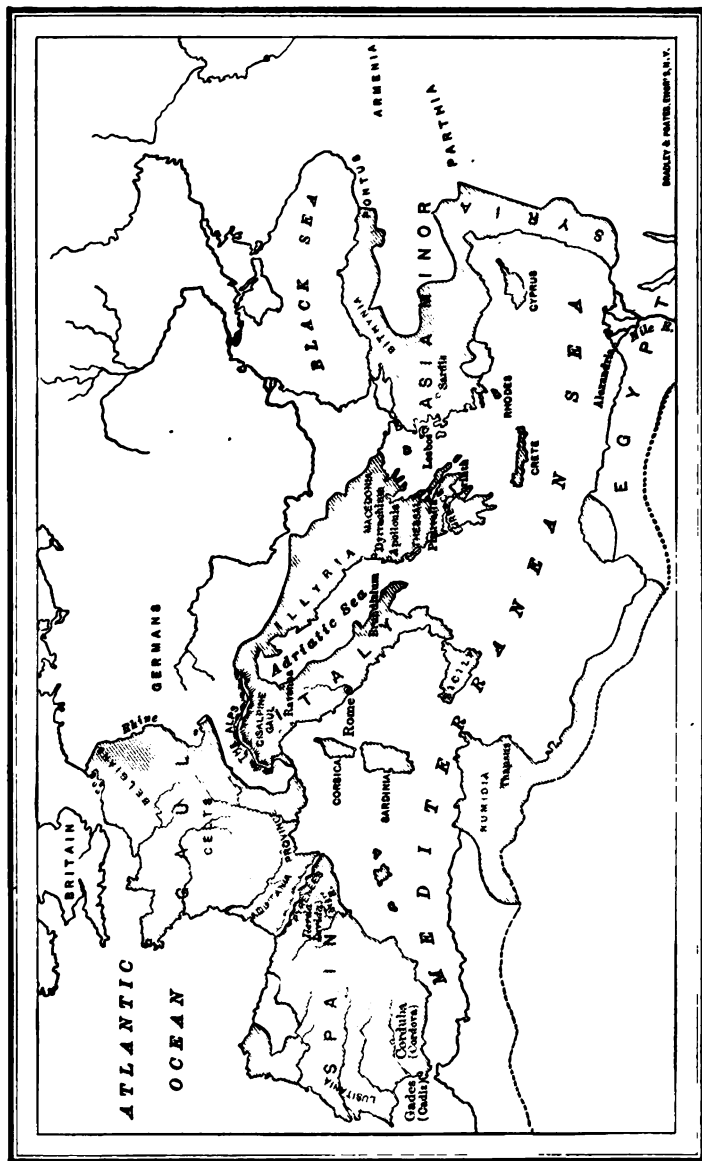
CHAPTER VII.	
POMPEY DEFEATED	91

CHAPTER VIII.	
VICTORIES IN AFRICA AND ASIA—REJOICINGS IN ROME . . .	101

CHAPTER IX.	
CÆSAR'S DEATH	112

CHAPTER X.	
SHAKESPEARE'S STORY OF THE DEATH OF CÆSAR	120

CHAPTER XI.	
OPINIONS OF EMINENT WRITERS ON THE CHARACTER OF CÆSAR .	149



MAP OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE IN THE TIME OF CÆSAR.

STORY OF CÆSAR.

I. ROME BEFORE CÆSAR.

Amid these small republics one arose
On Yellow Tiber's bank, almighty Rome.

THOMSON.

Two thousand years ago — about the beginning of the Christian era — the Roman Empire was at the height of its power and glory. Its capital was Rome, situated on the banks of the river Tiber in Italy, 14 miles from the place where it flows into the Mediterranean Sea. At that time the Roman Empire contained nearly all the countries of Europe, as well as parts of Asia and Africa, and Rome was the largest and richest city of the world.

We have no reliable knowledge of the early history of this famous city. We do not know for a certainty by whom it was built or first settled, but there is an ancient story or tradition which tells us that it was founded by Rom'ulus, that from him the city got its name, and that he was its first king. From the same tradition we learn that Romulus

was one of twin brothers, the sons of Mars, the god of war, and that his mother was a descendant of I-u'lus, son of the Trojan hero Æ-ne'as, who settled in Italy some years after the destruction of Troy by the Greeks (about 1184 B. C.) The legend of Æneas and his wanderings is told at great length in a celebrated Latin poem called the Æ-ne'id, written by the Roman poet Ver'gil, who lived in the last century before the Christian era.

Rome was founded in the year 753 B. C. It was ruled by kings for 245 years. There was also a Senate which had three hundred members, (in later times six hundred) who were appointed by the king and held office for life. They were chosen from the elderly men of the oldest families of the city; hence the name senate, which is derived from *senex*, the Latin word for *old*.

The heads of those old families were called Patricians, from *pater*, the Latin word for *father*. They were the descendants of the first settlers or property holders, or *fathers* of the city. The common class were called Plebeians from the Latin *plebs*, the *common people*. These were descendants of later settlers, or persons who had come from the country districts of Italy to live in Rome.

Besides the Senate there were assemblies of the people called Co-mi'tia, a word meaning *going*

together. These assemblies were of three kinds, the Comitia Curi-a'ta, of which only patricians could be members; the Comitia Cen-tu-ri-a'ta, which was composed of patricians and plebeians; and the Comitia Tri-bu'ta, the members of which were plebeians.

At first the comitia curiata made the laws, but in course of time this power was exercised by the comitia centuriata and the comitia tributa. No law could, however, be proposed at the comitia without the approval of the Senate. The Senate therefore was the most powerful body in Rome, since it could prevent the making of laws which it did not like.

The comitia held their meetings in a place called the Fo'rum. This was a large open space in the city, which was also used as a market. It was surrounded by fine statues, grand temples, courts of justice and other public buildings.

But though there were laws in Rome even in the earliest times, the kings did not always act in accordance with the laws. They more frequently ruled as pleased themselves, and some of them were cruel tyrants. The last king was called Tarquin the Proud. He was so bad a king that the people rose up against him, drove him and his family away from the city, and made their country a republic,



CONSUL, ATTENDED BY LICTORS.

and ever afterwards the Romans hated the very name of king.

The kingdom of Rome was not very large. It contained only the city itself and a few districts around it. But under the Republic the Romans conquered not only all Italy, but nearly all the countries bordering on the Mediterranean Sea.

The Republic existed for 460 years—from 508 B. C. to 48 B. C. Instead of a king there were two presidents called Consuls who were elected at the assemblies of the people and held office for one year.

The consuls had great power and authority. They appointed the members of the Senate. They were the commanders of the Roman armies, and the chief judges of the Republic. All other officers of government were subject to them, except the Tribunes of the People, of whom we shall learn later on. When the consuls appeared in public they were attended by officers called Licitors, each carrying an ax bound up in a bundle of rods. This was called the Fasces, and it was an emblem of the authority of the consuls to punish criminals by scourging or by death. At the end of their year of office the consuls got the title of Pro-consul, and were made governors of provinces, where they ruled with the power of kings. The provinces were

countries outside of Italy, that had been conquered by Rome.

In the Roman Republic more than half the population were slaves. These were not permitted to have anything to do with affairs of government. They were not regarded as forming any part of what was known as "the Roman people." But even the free citizens of Rome had not equal rights. In the early times of the Republic the plebeians were not allowed to hold any of the high offices of government, though they voted at the assemblies of the people for making laws and electing consuls. A plebeian could not be a senator, or a consul or a judge. For a long time this was the cause of much strife between the two classes.

There was also a great deal of strife about the ownership of land. Portions of the lands conquered by the Romans were sometimes made public property, or government lands. At first these lands were divided among the citizens, or allotted to citizens who had not land enough to support their families. This was in "the brave days of old" referred to by Lord Macaulay in his *Lays of Ancient Rome*:

Then none was for a party;
Then all were for the state;
Then the great man helped the poor,
And the poor man loved the great:

Then lands were fairly portioned;
Then spoils were fairly sold:
The Romans were like brothers
In the brave days of old.

But after a time the government lands, instead of being fairly divided, were given or sold to patrician families, who thus became owners of vast estates, and in many cases held those estates without paying rent or taxes. Nearly all the taxes were paid by the plebeians. The plebeians also did most of the fighting. Every Roman citizen had to be a soldier, and, while fighting Rome's battles, the plebeian soldiers could not attend to the tilling of their small farms.

The plebeians, therefore, became poorer and poorer, and their poverty was made harder by debt. They often had to borrow money to pay taxes and to support their families. The patricians, who were the money lenders, charged a high rate of interest, and the Roman laws were very severe against debtors. A debtor's land might be seized by his creditors, and the debtor himself thrown into prison, or he and his wife and children sold as slaves.

This was the cause of frequent quarrels between the patricians and plebeians. At last the plebeians, seeing no hope of getting justice in Rome, withdrew from the city. Most of them were soldiers

who had just returned after winning battles for the Republic in one of her wars, and they were ordered to march again to fight the enemies of Rome. But instead of obeying the order, they encamped upon a hill three miles outside the city. Here they intended to make a settlement and build a town for themselves.

The patricians were much frightened at this. Without the plebeians there would be no soldiers to fight Rome's battles, and the city would be left without means of defence against enemies. The patricians, therefore, feeling that something had to be done to save Rome from so great a danger, agreed that the plebeians should have officers of their own, to be their friends and protectors. The new officers were called Tribunes of the People. They were elected every year at assemblies where only plebeians voted, and only plebeians could be elected. At first there were two tribunes, but afterwards the number was increased to ten.

The tribunes had great power. They could veto, that is forbid, the carrying out of decrees or orders of the Senate, or of any public officer. They could pardon offences, prevent imprisonment for debt, and in many other ways greatly help the poorer citizens.

But the plebeians were still kept out of all the

offices except that of tribune. They did not get their share of the public lands, and they still had to pay nearly all the taxes. So the struggle continued between the two classes or parties—the patrician or Senate party and the party of the people. Sometimes the people got the better of the patricians and good laws were passed, but the patrician party very often prevented those laws from being carried out.

The patricians were able to do this because they were rich men and had numbers of followers ready to do their bidding. They sometimes got persons put to death who tried to have laws made for giving justice to the plebeians. There was a tribune named Ti-be'ri-us Sem-pro'ni-us Grac'chus who proposed a law that no citizen should have more than 300 acres of public land. It was one of the laws known as A-gra'ri-an laws, from *ager*, the Latin word for *field*. This law would have compelled the patricians to give up a great portion of the public land which they held, and there would then be some to be divided among poor citizens. That such a law was much needed, the Tribune Gracchus showed in an eloquent speech in the forum, in which he said:

“The wild beasts of Italy have their caves, but the brave men who shed their blood in her cause

have nothing but air and light. Without houses they wander from place to place with their wives and children. The generals at the head of our armies do but mock their men when they exhort them to fight for country and home; for among such numbers, there is perhaps not one who has a home to fight for. The private soldiers fight and die to increase the wealth and luxury of the great, and they are called 'masters of the world' while they have not a foot of ground in their possession."

But the eloquence of Gracchus was of no use. The agrarian law was passed at the people's assembly, but the patricians would not allow it to be carried out, and they made up their minds to put Gracchus to death. And on election day when the people were voting to make their friend and champion tribune for a second term, the patricians or nobles came with a number of their followers and slew Gracchus and three hundred of his supporters.

Some time after the death of Tiberius, his brother Ca'i-us, who was also a tribune, proposed that colonies should be established in different parts of the Roman provinces, where homes might be provided for poor families. He also got a law passed that freemen of the country towns of Italy should have the right of voting at elections, the same as the

citizens of Rome. But the patricians were against this law too, and Caius Gracchus met with the fate of his brother. He was killed, it is said at his own request, by one of his slaves, in order that he might escape death at the hands of his enemies.

Thus did the patricians of Rome oppose the efforts of the people to obtain justice. Sometimes, however, the people got the better of the patricians. They gained an important victory in compelling the Senate to agree to a law that plebeians might be elected to the office of consul. The first plebeian consul was elected in the year 388 B. C. Later on, nearly all the other offices were opened to the plebeians.

The office of consul was the chief object of a Roman citizen's ambition. All the great men of Rome who took active part in public affairs held that office at one time or another, and they looked upon it as the highest honor that could be conferred upon them. But although the plebeians were admitted to the consulship and other offices, the party contest continued. And in course of time some patricians began to be friendly to the cause of the people and to become their champions. Caius Ju'li-us Cæ'sar, about whom we are to tell in this book, was one of these. At the period of his birth and during his boyhood, there was a great struggle

between the two parties led by two famous men, Ma'ri-us and Sul'la.

Marius was by birth a plebeian; Sulla was a patrician and leader of the patrician or Senate party. Both were great generals and had fought and won many battles in the wars of the Republic. In the year 88 B. C. Rome began a war against Mithridates, a powerful Asiatic king, who had invaded a Roman province in Asia Minor and put to death a number of Roman citizens. Marius wanted very much to have the command in this war. The Senate, however, appointed Sulla, but the appointment was set aside by a decree of the people's assembly, and Sulla was ordered to turn over the command to Marius. Instead of obeying the order, Sulla, who was then preparing to start for Asia, led his army to Rome and entered the city. As his soldiers were marching through the streets, they were attacked by the supporters of Marius, and thus Rome was plunged into the horrors of civil war. Marius was defeated and had to flee for his life. Sulla then set out with his army to fight Mithridates.

After Sulla's departure the Marians again got their forces together, and invited their leader to return to Rome. Marius who had been in concealment in Africa, came back at the head of an army, and on his arrival in the city put great numbers of

the supporters of Sulla to death. Soon after this he died.

His successor as leader of the party opposed to the Senate was Cin'na. He was killed, in a mutiny, by one of his own soldiers, while he was preparing to lead an army against Sulla, on the latter's return from Asia. The next leader of the people's party was another Marius, son of the former general of that name.

Sulla won many victories in Asia over King Mithridates, after which he returned with his soldiers to Italy. Outside the gates of Rome he fought a great battle with the Marians and totally defeated them. Then followed the terrible Proscriptions. By Sulla's order the names of the principal supporters of the Marian party were posted on lists in public places in Rome and other cities of Italy, and rewards were offered for the killing of the persons proscribed, that is of those whose names appeared on the lists. Many thousands of Roman citizens were thus proscribed and put to death.

Sulla next got himself made Dic-ta'tor. This was an office still higher than that of consul, but it was not a permanent office. The law or custom was to appoint a dictator only at a time of serious danger, when it was thought necessary to give great power to one man in order to save the Republic.

The dictator was commander-in-chief of the army, and president of the Republic, with supreme control over all other officers of government. The term of office of a dictator was six months. At the end of that time he had to resign, and no dictator was again appointed until another extraordinary danger or calamity threatened the Republic. But Sulla held the office for three years, after which he resigned and retired from public life.

During his term as dictator, Sulla got many laws passed against the plebeians. One of his laws was that only senators could be judges; another that none but senators could be elected tribunes, and so he took from the people the office which, as we have seen, was established specially for them. He also divided among his own soldiers lands which he had taken from the proscribed members of the people's party. Thus the strife between the two classes became more bitter than ever.

II. EARLY LIFE OF CÆSAR.

Great Julius whom now all the world admires,
The more he grew in years, the more inflam'd
With glory, wept that he lived so long
Inglorious.

MILTON.

It was during Sulla's proscriptions that the name of Caius Julius Cæsar first came into notice in Rome. This great man was born in the year 102 B. C. He belonged to a patrician family which claimed descent from Iulus, son of the Trojan hero Æneas, the name Julius, or Iulius as it is written in Latin, being derived from Iulus. Caius was a common first name among the Romans. The surname Cæsar is said to have been given to a member of the Julian family who was born with a great quantity of hair, *cæ-sa'ri-es* being the Latin word for a *bush of hair*.

Many of the Cæsars held high office in the Roman Republic. The father of Caius Julius held the office of Prætor or judge. But the greatest of the family, and the greatest of all Romans was the wonderful man whose story we are about to tell.

From the great deeds and great power of Cæsar, the name has come down to our time as meaning kingly or imperial authority. Cæsar was the first Roman emperor. All the succeeding emperors bore his name as a part of their title. The name has been adopted in an altered form in the title of the German emperor, who is called the *Kaiser*, and in the title of the emperor of Russia, who is called the *Czar*.

Many great men have excelled in only one or two things. Many great generals have been great only in war. Many great statesmen have been great only in affairs of government. Cæsar excelled in almost everything. Rome produced a number of great generals. Cæsar was the greatest of them all. An ancient author tell us that, "in less than ten years' war in Gaul he took eight hundred cities, conquered three hundred nations, and fought battles with three millions of men." Rome produced many great public speakers. Cæsar was the greatest of them, except Cic'e-ro, who was one of the two greatest orators of the ancient world.

Cæsar was a great historian. He wrote a history of some of his own wars, which is one of the books used in our schools. Cæsar was a great statesman. He knew how to govern a country as well as to conquer it. He was a great jurist, that is, he had

an extensive knowledge of law. He was a great scholar. He was skilled in most of the branches of learning known in his time. He was a mathematician, an astronomer, and an architect. He wrote a book upon grammar. Pliny, a Roman historian, who lived in the first century of the Christian era, tells us that "He was accustomed to read, write, dictate and listen at the same time," and that "he often dictated to his secretaries four letters at one time on the most important subjects." It is also said that during one of his military campaigns, "he accustomed himself to dictate letters as he rode on horseback, and found sufficient employment for two secretaries at once."

A wonderful man was this Cæsar —
Who could both write and fight, and in both was equally
skillful.

LONGFELLOW.

Cæsar's school education was the best that Roman boys of the wealthiest families received. We are told that he was "a tall, slight, handsome youth, with dark, piercing eyes, a fair complexion, large nose, full lips, and features refined and intellectual," and that, "he was particular in his appearance, used the bath frequently, and attended carefully to his hair." He had great love and reverence for his mother, whose name was Au-re'li-a. He had the deepest

reverence for her, and she in turn had a strong influence over him.

At an early age Cæsar began to take part in politics. Though he was by birth a patrician, his sympathies were with the people. It seemed to him to be unjust that nearly all the high offices of government should be held by rich men, and that most of the land of Italy should be owned by a few wealthy families. This was still the state of things in the Roman Republic when he was a young man.

Cæsar was connected by family relationship with some of the popular leaders. His first wife, Cornelia, whom he married when he was 17 years of age, was a daughter of Cinna. His aunt, the sister of his father, was married to the great Marius.

When a boy of only 16, Cæsar was made Flamen or priest of Jupiter, through the influence of Marius. This was a very important office. The ancient Romans believed that there were a great many gods, and that there was a chief, or king, of the gods whom they called Jupiter. They had priests who devoted themselves to the service of particular gods, such as priests of Jupiter, priests of Mars and the like. The religion of the Romans was part of their system of government. It was under the direction of two councils or colleges — the College of Pontiffs and the College of Augurs.

The principal of the college of pontiffs was called Pon'ti-fex Max'im-us (Chief Pontiff). To be chief pontiff was esteemed a high honor, and the greatest men of Rome were very eager to obtain it.

Young Cæsar had a narrow escape from being one of the victims of Sulla's terrible proscriptions. The dictator ordered him to separate from his wife, the daughter of Cinna, because of the connection of her family with the Marian party. Cæsar refused to do this, and fearing that the next order of the tyrant would be for his death, he fled from Rome. Sulla then deprived him of his office of flamen, and put his name upon the fatal list of the proscribed. But patrician friends interceded for him, saying to Sulla that there was "no need to put such a boy to death." Sulla's reply was very remarkable. "Be it so," said he, "since you will it, but I would have you know that he whom you ask me to pardon will one day ruin our party, for in this young Cæsar there are many Mariuses."

But though pardoned, Cæsar did not think it safe to return to Rome at this time. We next hear of him at the court of King Nic-o-me'des of Bi-thyn'i-a (Asia Minor) by whom he was hospitably received. Soon afterwards he joined the Roman army at Mit-y-le'ne, a town in Lesbos, one of the Grecian islands. The Romans were besieging this town, which was

held by the troops of Mithridates, who had again taken up arms against Rome. During the siege young Cæsar greatly distinguished himself. For saving the life of a comrade he was presented with a Civic Crown. The civic crown was regarded by the Romans as a very high honor, though it was but a wreath of oak leaves. It was given to any soldier who saved the life of a comrade in battle.

As soon as Cæsar heard of the death of Sulla, he returned to Rome. But he did not yet take very active part in political contests. Occasionally, however, he made public speeches, in which he defended the cause of the people. He consequently became a favorite with the plebeians, who began to look upon him as their leader.

After remaining a few years in Rome, he went to Rhodes (an island in the Mediterranean) to finish his study of oratory. He had studied at Rhodes before, and was already a good public speaker, but he wished to become a still better one. It was his ambition to excel in everything he attempted, and he, particularly desired to excel in oratory. In ancient Rome, as in our own time and country, public speaking was one of the means by which political power and office were to be obtained. It was of even greater importance in Rome than it is with us. The Romans had no newspapers, and only those

who were very rich could have books, for the art of printing being then unknown, books were all in writing, so that to make even a few books took a long time.

Public speaking was, therefore, their only way of addressing the people. When a Roman wanted to say anything to his countrymen — to tell them what he thought about government affairs, or to solicit their votes — he could do it only at a public meeting. For this reason the Romans held the art of oratory in high esteem.

On his voyage to Rhodes, Cæsar was captured by pirates. At that time many parts of the Mediterranean were infested by bands of these sea-robbers, who cruised in fleets of swift-sailing boats or galleys, and attacked and plundered merchant vessels. Often they seized passengers and held them prisoners until they paid ransom. Plu'tarch, a famous Grecian biographer, who wrote the lives of many great men of ancient times, tells the story of Cæsar among the pirates:

“They asked only twenty talents [about \$20,000] for his ransom. He laughed at their demand, seeing that they did not know who he was, and promised them fifty talents. To raise the money, he sent messengers to different cities, and in the meantime remained with only one friend and two attendants,

among these pirates, who considered murder as a mere trifle. Cæsar, however, held them in contempt. Whenever he wished to sleep, he would send them an order to keep silence.

“ Thus he lived among them thirty-eight days, as if they had been his guards of honor instead of his keepers. Perfectly fearless, he joined in their sports and took his exercises among them. He wrote poems and orations, and recited them to the pirates, and when they expressed no admiration, he called them dunces and barbarians.

“ When one of the pirates asked him what he would do if he had power to punish them, he answered that he would inflict the severest penalties of Roman law. They supposed that this was said in jest. But Cæsar was as good as his word. When his messengers returned, the ransom was paid and he and his friends were set free. He then got together a few ships, equipped them with men and arms, and pursued and captured the pirates. After compelling them to return the ransom money, he took them ashore and put them all to death.”

He now proceeded to Rhodes, where he remained for some time taking lessons in eloquence from Ap-ol-lo'ni-us Mo'lo, one of the great masters there, under whom he had formerly studied. From Rhodes he went to Asia Minor (B. C. 75), where the Roman

general Lu-cul'lus was then carrying on the war against King Mithridates. Cæsar, on his own authority, gathered together a body of troops and defeated the armies of Mithridates in several battles.

Soon afterwards he returned to Rome. In his absence he had been elected pontiff. He was now elected Military Tribune, an office which gave him rank in the army as commander of a thousand men. His next office was that of Quæstor, to which he was appointed B. C. 68. This entitled him to a seat in the Senate. The quæstors were the Roman treasurers. They collected and took charge of the taxes, and kept account of the public income and expenditure. Quæstors accompanied the armies in time of war to pay the soldiers and collect the taxes in the provinces.

Cæsar now began to be more active in public affairs. This year (B. C. 68) his wife Cornelia, the daughter of Cinna, and his aunt Julia, the widow of Marius, died. There were grand funeral processions in honor of both. Cæsar caused busts of Marius to be carried in the funeral procession of Julia, and he made funeral orations in the forum in which he spoke in praise of Marius and Cinna. This made the patricians very angry. But the people were delighted, and they applauded Cæsar for his courage

in publicly honoring the men who had opposed the Senate party.

Soon after the death of his wife, Cæsar was sent as quæstor to Spain. An interesting anecdote is told of him at this time, which shows that even then his mind was filled with thoughts of glory and conquest, and that he was unhappy because he had not yet done anything to make his name great in the world. It is said that he spent his leisure hours in reading about Alexander, the famous king of Macedon. This king, known in history as Alexander the Great, died at the early age of 32, but in his short life he made vast conquests in many countries. Now Cæsar was 32 years of age when he was quæstor in Spain. One day, during a visit to the Spanish town of Ga'des (modern Cadiz), he came upon a statue of Alexander in one of the public buildings. He gazed at it long and earnestly, and at length burst into tears. His friends, surprised at this, asked him the cause of his distress. He answered:

“Do you not think I have sufficient reason for grief when Alexander, at my age, ruled over so many conquered countries, and I have not yet performed one glorious action?”

III. CONSULSHIP OF "JULIUS AND CÆSAR"— A ROMAN TRIUMPH.

Truly a wonderful man was Caius Julius Cæsar,
"Better be first," he said, "in a little I-be'ri-an village
Than be second in Rome."

LONGFELLOW.

The time for Cæsar's glorious actions was, however, approaching. Within a few years after his return from Spain he held, in succession, the offices of Æ'dile, chief pontiff and prætor.

The ædiles had care of the public buildings of the city. They also took charge of the public entertainments, such as games of boxing, racing and wrestling, and shows of combats between gladiators. The gladiators were men—usually slaves—who fought with swords in the theatres and circuses for the entertainment of the people. The Romans took great delight in such exhibitions. Their theatres were enormous buildings, open to the sky; some of them large enough to hold 30,000 persons. Their circuses, generally, used for race-courses, were still larger, one of them, called the Circus Maximus, a vast building of

stone, being capable of accommodating over 150,000 spectators.

In the early years of the Republic, the shows and games were provided at government expense. But in later times rich men spent great sums of money in providing such entertainments, and by this means gained the favor of the people and their votes for election to office. Cæsar, while he was ædile, arranged for public amusements on a vast scale. He gave one exhibition in which three hundred and twenty pairs of gladiators appeared at the same time. He thus became more popular than ever, as was shown by his election to the high offices of pontifex maximus and prætor.

The prætors had great power. They were military commanders as well as judges. At the end of Cæsar's year of office as prætor, he became proprætor and was made governor of Lu-si-ta'ni-a, a province of Spain. He was now for the first time formally placed in command of an army, but he had thoughts and hopes of still higher honors and still greater power. We are told that on his journey to Spain, in passing through a small village, one of his friends asked him in a joking way, "Can there be here any disputes for offices, or contests for honors, or such ambition as we see among great men?" Cæsar answered in a very serious tone, "I assure

you, I would rather be the first man here than the second man in Rome."

Upon his arrival in Spain he applied himself to business with great diligence. He conquered tribes that had never before been subject to Rome; he put down bands of robbers that had infested several parts of the country; he made peace between cities that had been at war with one another; and he settled disputes between debtors and creditors. He also sent large sums of money to the government at Rome, and, it is said, "he did not forget to keep a large amount for his own use."

Thus Cæsar commenced his career as a general and statesman. Returning to Rome, B. C. 60, he became a candidate for the office of consul for the following year. The Senate party did all they could against him, but he had very powerful friends. One of these was a man whose name will be frequently mentioned in our Story. This was Cne'ius Pompe'ius, called Pompeius Magnus (Pompey the Great), because of his many victories in war when he was but a very young man. Pompey at first was a supporter of the Senate party. He fought under Sulla against Marius, but later he became favorable to the people's side. He was consul in the year 70 B. C. The other consul for the same year was Crassus, one of the millionaires of Rome. It is said that during his term

of office Crassus entertained the citizens at a great feast, served on 10,000 tables, and, that he gave the poor of the city a supply of provisions for three months. Such gifts—like the games and shows already mentioned—were among the means often employed by Roman politicians to gain the favor of the people.

Now there was at this time a quarrel between Pompey and Crassus, each of them striving for greater power in public affairs than the other. Cæsar persuaded them to become friends, and to join with him in a league for carrying out their political plans. Thus was formed the famous alliance which is known as the First Tri-um'vi-rate. The friendship between Cæsar and Pompey was shortly afterwards made closer by the marriage of Pompey to Cæsar's daughter, Julia.

Cæsar was now elected to the consulship. The Senate opposed him, but he had the people on his side, and he was supported by the wealth of Crassus and the influence of Pompey. The consul elected with him was Bib'u-lus. He was a friend of the Senate party, and acted against Cæsar in everything he undertook to do. But the triumvirate were strong enough to carry out their plans in spite of Bibulus and the Senate. At last Bibulus, seeing that he could do nothing to prevent Cæsar from hav-

ing his own way, gave up the struggle and took no further part in public affairs during his term of office. Cæsar, therefore, was practically sole consul. It was, as a wit remarked, the year of the consulship of "Julius and Cæsar." The Romans did not use numerals in their dates as we do. To indicate the years they mentioned the names of the consuls. Thus in referring to the year B. C. 59, they would say, "in the consulship of Cæsar and Bibulus."

Cæsar got many good laws passed during his consulship. They were called the Julian Laws. The most important of them was one for dividing public lands among poor citizens with large families, as the brothers Gracchus had tried to do in former years. But the Senate party were not now allowed to prevent the enforcement of the law. Cæsar not only got his agrarian law passed, but he compelled the senators to take an oath that they would obey it.

We can understand, then, why the Senate disliked Cæsar, and how much they desired to restrict his influence and power. With this object they tried to prevent his appointment as governor of a province, at the end of his term of office as consul. It was usual, as we have said, for proconsuls to have such appointments, but the Senate thought they would make an exception in the case of Cæsar, whose power they dreaded. Instead, therefore, of allotting

him a province, they proposed to make him superintendent of forests and public lands, an office in which he would have nothing to do with armies or politics.



LIGHT-ARMED SOLDIER.

But this attempt against the popular leader was defeated by his friends. A law was proposed and

passed at the people's assembly appointing Cæsar proconsul of Cis-al'pine Gaul and Il-lyr'i-cum for five years and giving him an army of three legions. The Senate, seeing that it was no longer of any use to oppose him, added to his command the province of Trans-al'pine Gaul, and to his army another legion.

Cæsar was now about to enter the field of action in which he performed the wonderful exploits that

made him famous. He had an army of four legions, to which he added two more legions in Gaul, having thus altogether about 30,000 men at the beginning of his first campaign. The number of men in a Roman legion was different at different times. Cæsar's legions had each about 4,000 or 5,000 infantry (foot-soldiers), and 300 cavalry (mounted soldiers.)

And excellent soldiers they were—those Roman legionaries, as they were sometimes called—perhaps the best soldiers of the ancient world. They had practice enough, at all events, for Rome was almost always at war,



SOLDIER OF THE LEGION.

as we learn from what we are told about the temple of Ja'nus. This was a temple erected in honor of Janus, an ancient Italian king. It stood in the forum and was built entirely of bronze. There was a rule, or law, that its gates should be open in time of war, and shut in time of peace, and so constantly were the Romans at war that in a period of eight hundred years, the temple gates were shut only three times.

We see, therefore, that the Roman soldiers had plenty of experience in fighting. And almost all Roman citizens were soldiers. They were obliged to spend a number of years in the army, and the training or drill was very severe. Besides exercises in the use of weapons, they had to practice running, jumping, and swimming, — and they were taught to swim in full armor, that is, with their clothing and weapons. Their uniform was made to protect them against the blows of the enemy. The helmet or cap was of brass



BOWMAN.

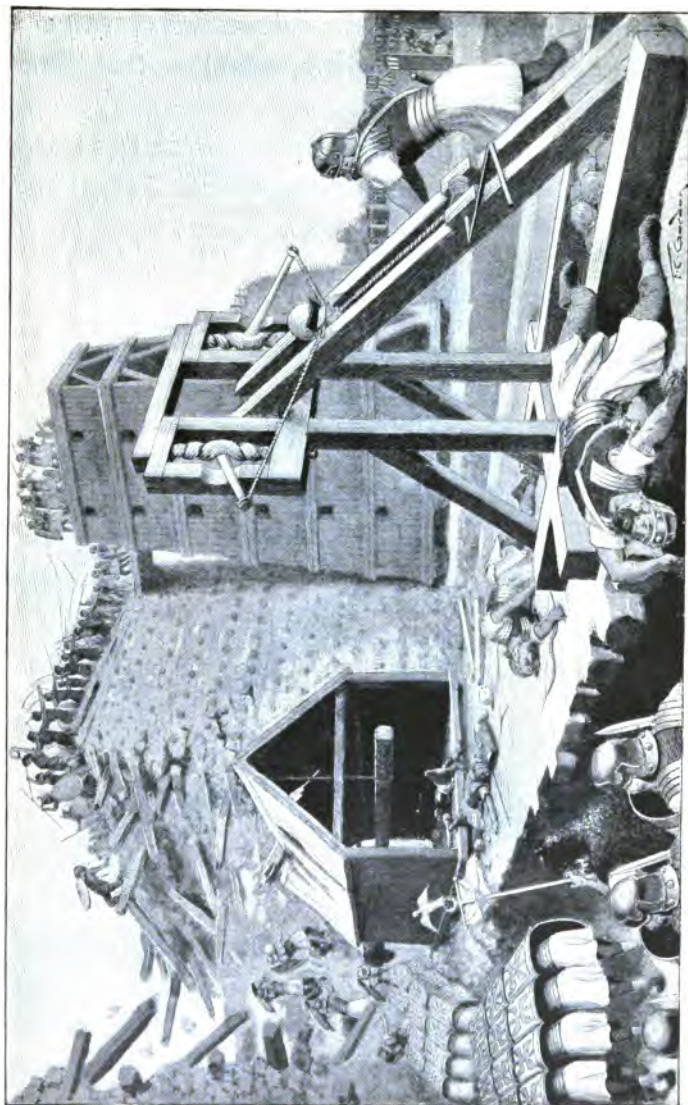
or leather ; the jacket, called a cuirass, was of leather ; and the greaves, or leggings, were of the same material.

An important part of the Roman soldier's means of defence was the scu'tum or shield. This was



SLINGER.

made of wood or wickerwork, plated with iron. It was four feet long, two and one half feet broad, and either oval or oblong. In fighting it was held on the left arm by handles, and could with ease be moved



SIEGE ENGINES.

rapidly up or down, or to either side, so as to protect the whole body.

The principal weapons of the Romans were the pi'lum and the glad'i-us. Of course they had no guns or cannon. Gunpowder, though said to have been known in China and India at a very early period, was not known in Europe for many centuries after Cæsar's time. The pilum was a javelin or spear six feet long, ending in a sharp iron point. It was darted or hurled with great force, from a distance of twenty or thirty feet. The strong and active Roman soldiers were able to use it with terrible effect. The gladius was a short, stout, two-edged, pointed sword for close or hand-to-hand fighting. Bows and arrows, and slings for throwing stones were also used.

The besieging of towns was an important part of ancient warfare. Towns with a large population were usually protected by strong walls, built all around them. In case an army came to attack one of those towns there was a siege, that is, when the inhabitants refused to surrender, believing that they were strong enough to defend themselves. In such case the enemy might remain outside, trying to break down the walls, or to scale them with ladders. Sieges often lasted for months, sometimes for years. So long as the people of the town had food and water enough, they might hold out

against the besiegers, unless the latter could take the town by storm, that is, by violent assault on the walls.

The Romans had several kinds of engines for sieges. With the *bal-lis'ta* they hurled huge stones. The *cat'a-pult* was an engine for throwing heavy spears, as large as beams. The battering-ram was for breaking in walls, striking against them with tremendous force. It was a thick beam of wood, more than a hundred feet long, with a head of iron, or some other hard metal, formed somewhat like the head of a ram. This animal when fighting, butts with its head, hence the Romans gave its name to their battering engine.

Besides his weapons, the Roman soldier carried 30 or 40 pounds of baggage. He had tools for cut-



AQUILIFER.

ting and digging, such as axes, saws, and spades; and he had his rations, or allowance of food, and his cooking vessels. The baggage was carried in a bundle called *sar'ci-næ*, fastened to the top of a forked pole.

The Roman war standard or ensign was the figure of an eagle fixed on a long staff. Each legion had its standard, and the soldier who carried it was called *a-quil'if-er*, which is Latin for *eagle-bearer*.

Roman soldiers were encouraged by rewards of various kinds to be brave in war. He who saved a comrade's life got a civic crown such as, we have seen, was given to Cæsar at the siege of Mitylene. Rewards were given also to the soldier who killed or severely wounded an enemy in battle. The general who gained great victories was honored by a Triumph. This was a grand procession through the streets of Rome, and in it the victorious general rode at the head of his army, with the prisoners and rich spoils that had been taken from the enemy. The day of a triumph was observed as a holiday. All work was suspended, and stands were erected in the streets for the people to see the show. Plutarch thus describes the triumph given to a consul who had conquered a king and brought him prisoner to Rome.

“In every theater or circus where games used to



A ROMAN TRIUMPH.

be held, and in other parts of the city, which were convenient for seeing the procession, the people erected scaffolds, and on the day of the triumph were all dressed in white. The triumph took up three days. On the first were exhibited the images, paintings, and statues of enormous size, taken from the enemy, and now carried in two hundred and fifty chariots.

“Next day the richest and most beautiful of the enemy’s arms were carried in a great number of wagons. These arms glittered with polished brass and steel. Helmets were placed upon shields, and arrows lay huddled among horses’ bits, with points of naked swords and long spears appearing through on every side. The arms were tied together loosely, so that room was left them to clatter as they were drawn along, and the clank of them was so harsh and terrible that they were not seen without dread, though they were among the spoils of the conquered. After the wagons loaded with arms, marched 3,000 men who carried the silver money in 750 vessels. Others brought bowls, horns, goblets and cups, all of silver, and arranged so as to make the best show.

“On the third day the trumpeters marched first, playing such airs as the Romans play when they encourage their soldiers to fight in battle. These

were followed by 120 fat oxen with their horns gilded, and led by young men, wearing belts of curious workmanship. After them came boys who carried gold and silver vessels for the sacrifice to the gods. Next went persons that carried gold coin in vessels, and after them, those that bore the consecrated bowl which the consul had caused to be made of gold and adorned with precious stones. After this was seen the king's chariot, with his armor upon it, and his diadem, and at a little distance, his children attended by a great number of masters and teachers. Behind the children and their attendants walked the captive king himself, clothed in black. He appeared as if overwhelmed with terror, and deprived of reason by the weight of his misfortunes. Next were carried 400 coronets of gold, which the cities had sent the consul, as compliments on his victory. Then came the consul himself, riding in a magnificent chariot, with a purple robe interwoven with gold, and bearing a branch of laurel in his right hand. His whole army followed the general's chariot, carrying laurel boughs and singing songs of victory."

Macaulay, the historian, has written, in his *Lays of Ancient Rome*, some fine verses on a triumph given to the consul Ma'ni-us Cu'ri-us Den-ta'tus, who had twice before been honored in the same way.

Hurrah! for the great triumph
 That stretches many a mile.
 Hurrah! for the wan captives
 That pass in endless file.

.

Hurrah! for the great triumph
 That stretches many a mile.
 Hurrah! for the rich dye of Tyre,
 And the fine web of Nile,
 The helmets gay with plumage
 Torn from the pheasant's wings,
 The belts set thick with starry gems
 That shone on Indian kings,
 The urns of massy silver,
 The goblets rough with gold,
 The many-colored tablets bright
 With loves and wars of old,
 The stone that breathes and struggles,
 The brass that seems to speak:—
 Such cunning they who dwell on high
 Have given unto the Greek.
 Hurrah! for Manius Curius,
 The bravest son of Rome,
 Thrice in utmost need sent forth,
 Thrice drawn in triumph home.
 Weave, weave, for Manius Curius,
 The third embroidered gown:
 Make ready the third lofty car,
 And twine the third green crown.



IV. CONQUESTS IN GAUL.

The Gaul shall come against thee
From the land of snow and night;
Thou shalt give his fair haired armies
To the raven and the kite.

MACAULAY.

Ancient Gaul included France and Belgium, and portions of Switzerland, Holland and Germany, together with the north of Italy, from the Apennine Mountains to the Alps. The north-of-Italy part was called Cisalpine Gaul, the word *Cisalpine* meaning *on this side of the Alps*, that is the Italian side. Gaul on the other side of the Alps—the French side—was called *Transalpine* Gaul, *Transalpine* meaning *beyond the Alps*. The part of Gaul which the Romans possessed before Cæsar's conquest was Cisalpine Gaul, together with the south of Transalpine Gaul—the portion bordering the Mediterranean sea. The Romans called this the Province. With a slightly altered spelling, (*Provence*,) the name is retained as one of the present geographical divisions of south France. Illyricum, the other district of Cæsar's command, was a narrow strip of

country lying along the Adriatic sea on the east, now part of Austria.

That part of Gaul which did not belong to the Romans before Cæsar's conquests was called Free Gaul. Cæsar himself describes it in his famous history known as the Commentaries on the Gallic War. He tells us that the country was inhabited by three great nations, the Belgians, the Celts and the A-qui-ta'ni-ans. The Belgians occupied the north-east region, which included the country now called Belgium, together with portions of Holland, Germany and France. The Aquitanians occupied the south-west corner, between the river Garonne and the Pyrenees Mountains. All the rest of the country, from the Alps Mountains and the river Seine, to the Atlantic ocean and the English Channel, was Celtic Gaul. Each of these divisions contained many states, occupied by separate tribes, and each tribe had its own government.

In Cæsar's time the population of Free Gaul was about seven millions. They were to a considerable degree a civilized people. They cultivated land, raised cattle and had some manufactures. They had villages and towns, roads and bridges, and in the north and north-west—the districts bordering the English Channel and the Atlantic ocean—they were skillful seamen. For sailing in the channel

they had leathern skiffs moved by oars, but on the west coast they had large vessels with sails and anchors. The sails were made of leather, or the skins



GALLIC SOLDIERS.

of animals, and in these ships the Celts often made long voyages on the ocean.

The Gauls fought with long iron swords or lances, spears, slings, and bows and arrows. They wore

helmets of metal, ornamented with horns of animals, and tufts of feathers. On their breasts they had plates of iron or bronze, called breastplates, and they carried large bucklers or shields. They were a fierce people, and much inclined to warfare. For a long time they had been a terror to the Romans. On one occasion they invaded Italy, marched to Rome, and burned the city to ashes.

The Roman people, therefore, regarded these Gauls as very dangerous enemies, and in order to be always ready for defence against attack by them, they kept a special sum of money in their treasury, which it was forbidden to touch except for a war against the Gauls. We shall see that when Cæsar returned to Rome after conquering Gaul, he seized this money to pay his soldiers, and when an official tried to prevent him from taking it, he said, "I have subdued the Gauls, therefore there is no longer any need of such provision against them."

Cæsar's first struggle in Gaul was with the Helve'ti-ans, a tribe that inhabited the district now called Switzerland. These people were not content in their own country. It was too small for them, they thought, and the land was not very good. They had heard of fertile regions in other parts of Gaul, where the population was not large, and they resolved to go and take possession of some of these. The place

they decided to emigrate to lay between the rivers Garonne and Loire, away towards the Atlantic, not far from the borders of the Roman Province. There they proposed to settle with their wives and children. So these ancient Swiss began to make preparations for their departure. There were about 300,000 of them, and 92,000 of these were fighting men.

When Cæsar was told what the Helvetians were about to do, he resolved to prevent it. They had formerly been enemies of Rome, and he thought that if they were allowed to settle in a fertile country so near the Roman Province, they might become very bad neighbors. Besides, if they left Helvetia (Switzerland), the Germans would probably come and take it for themselves. They too had been enemies of the Romans, and might prove troublesome, even dangerous neighbors, for in Helvetia they would be within easy reach of Italy.

Cæsar, therefore, made up his mind not to permit this plan of emigration to be carried out. So, as soon as he heard that the Helvetians were about to move, he hurried over the Alps into Gaul and got his army in readiness. This was in the early part of the year 58 B. C. Finding that the Helvetians had already set forth, he went in pursuit, and overtook them as they were marching through the country

of the Æd'u-ans. A battle was fought at Bi-brac'te (now Autun in France), in which the Helvetians were defeated with the loss of half their fighting men. The remainder, with the women and children, submitted to Cæsar. He treated them very kindly. Some of them settled in Gaul, and the rest were sent back to Switzerland, lest the Germans should take possession of it.

In their emigration the Helvetians had taken twenty days to cross the river Saone on boats and rafts. Cæsar, pursuing them, built a bridge and crossed it with his army, all in a single day. It is not at all certain that any general or engineer of our own time could do quicker work. We have a great many machines and improved methods that were not known to the Romans, 1900 years ago, but we could hardly do much better than Cæsar did at this crossing of the Saone.

Cæsar's next conflict was with A-ri-o-vis'tus, a German king. Ariovistus had crossed the river Rhine with his forces, and had taken possession of portions of Celtic Gaul. He had compelled the Æduans and other Gallic tribes to agree to pay him a large sum of money annually. He had made prisoners of a number of the chiefs of those tribes, and held them as security for the regular payment of the money. Such payments by a conquered

people to the conqueror were called Tribute, and the prisoners held as security were called Hostages.

The Æduan King Div-i-ti'a-cus, begged Cæsar's help against Ariovistus. Cæsar readily complied with this request, for the Æduans were friends and allies of the Romans, and the Romans always stood by their friends. Moreover Cæsar thought that if the Germans were allowed to become masters of any part of Gaul, they might next invade Italy and even attack Rome itself.

Ariovistus, too, had at one time been friendly to the Romans. Cæsar, therefore, thought that he would first have a talk with this king over the matter in dispute. So he invited Ariovistus to meet him, but the German warrior haughtily refused. Cæsar then sent a message commanding him to give back the hostages to the Æduans; to cease injuring that people; and to bring no more soldiers across the Rhine; and saying that, if these orders were not obeyed, he would protect the Æduans. Ariovistus treated Cæsar's demands with contempt. He refused to restore the hostages, and he sent word that if the Romans wanted to fight, they should soon be made to feel what the Germans could do in war.

When Cæsar heard this he at once set out with his army towards the Rhine. While on his way, he had some trouble with his own soldiers. Reports

had been spread amongst them that the Germans were men of gigantic size and strength, and of terrible appearance. These reports alarmed many of the Romans, whose fear was so great, that they "could not refrain even from tears," and some of them began to talk of refusing to follow their general. But Cæsar soon encouraged his men by telling them of their former victories, and he then continued his march until he came in sight of the army of Ariovistus, some miles from the Rhine, in the country now called Alsace. Here a battle was fought, in which the Romans gained a great victory. Ariovistus fled from the field, and in a small boat crossed the Rhine into his own country. At this battle Cæsar himself led the attack. In his own account of the fight, as we find it in the Commentaries, he says:

"When the signal was given, our men made a vigorous dash upon the enemy, and the enemy rushed forward so rapidly that there was not time to hurl our javelins at them. The Romans, therefore, threw aside their javelins and fought with swords, hand to hand. The Germans, according to their custom, rapidly formed a phalanx [a mass of men standing close together in the form of a square], and resisted the attack of our swords. Many of our men leaped upon the phalanx, and with their hands tore away the

shields and wounded the enemy from above. All the enemy turned their backs, nor did they cease to flee until they arrived at the river Rhine, about fifty miles from that place."

Thus Cæsar finished his first campaign. There was no more fighting that year, but the Belgian tribes, having heard of the Roman general's exploits, and fearing that he would next lead his army into their country, formed a league to oppose him. Cæsar was in Cisalpine Gaul when he heard of this. He immediately raised two more legions, crossed the Alps, and rapidly marched north. His sudden appearance astonished the Belgians. Several of the tribes submitted without a struggle, others he defeated in battle. His principal fight was with the Ner'vi-ans on the bank of the river Sambre.

The Romans did not win so easily this time, and they would have been beaten had it not been for the heroic action of Cæsar himself. The battle began sooner than the Romans had expected. Many of them were at work digging trenches to make a camp. Suddenly the Nervians, who had been concealed in a neighboring wood, rushed out in great numbers and furiously attacked them. Taken by surprise the Romans were easily thrown into confusion. More than once during the fight they were in danger of being utterly routed. The moment of greatest

peril was when one of the legions — the 12th — was near being overpowered. Most of the captains had been killed or wounded. Cæsar snatched a shield from a soldier in the rear, rushed to the front, spoke a few words of encouragement to his men, and by his example inspired them with fresh courage. This incident is described by Longfellow in his *Courtship of Miles Standish*:

“Now do you know what he did on a certain occasion in
Flanders,
When the rear guard of his army retreated, the front giving
way too,
And the immortal Twelfth Legion was crowded so closely
together
There was no room for their swords? Why, he seized a shield
from a soldier,
Put himself straight at the head of his troops, and com-
manded the captains,
Calling on each by his name, to order forward the ensigns;
Then to widen the ranks, and give more room for their
weapons;
So he won the day, the battle of — something or other.
That’s what I always say; if you wish a thing to be well done,
You must do it yourself, you must not leave it to others.”

Only one Belgic tribe now remained in arms against the Romans. These were the Ad-u-at’u-ci. Cæsar pursued them to one of their towns, now called Namur, and he laid siege to the place. The town

was surrounded by high rocks, and precipices on all sides except one, and on this side there was a lofty double wall. At first the Aduatuci made frequent sallies out of the town and fought the enemy outside the walls, but they got frightened at the siege engines built by the Romans. One of these engines was a large high tower made of wood and moved upon wheels, from the top of which Cæsar's soldiers could hurl stones and shoot arrows in upon the men in the town.

While this tower was being constructed at a distance, the Aduatuci from their walls mocked the Romans saying, of what use could it be to them. How could such small men hope to be able to place a tower of such weight against their walls? For the Gauls were very tall and very strong men and they had a contempt for the comparatively short stature of the Romans.

But when they saw the tower moving towards the walls of their town they began to think that the Romans were something more than human beings, and they sent ambassadors to Cæsar offering to give up to him both themselves and all their possessions. They begged, however, that he would let them keep their arms, for without them they could not defend themselves against the neighboring tribes, who were always making war

upon them. Cæsar replied that they must give up their arms, telling them at the same time that he would take care they should receive no injury from their neighbors.

The Aduatuci having now no choice but to submit, agreed to Cæsar's terms, and so they cast forth their arms from the walls until there was a heap of spears and arrows which reached nearly to the top. But they did not throw out all their weapons. They kept back enough to make another fight, and in the middle of the night they marched out of the gates with all their forces and rushed forward to Cæsar's camp, thinking that the soldiers there, believing the war to be over, would be all asleep.

But the Romans were not caught napping. The watches were at their posts and immediately the alarm was given. A fierce battle followed, in which the Aduatuci were defeated and 4000 of them slain. Then Cæsar, as he himself tells us, "sold the whole spoil of that town," the "spoil" being 53,000 prisoners. This was a barbarous thing to do, but it was the custom of the time. In those days conquerors sold their prisoners of war as slaves to merchants or contractors who followed the armies for the purpose of buying the prisoners.

We may think, then, that since there was so much war, there must have been a great many slaves.



THE VICTOR IN A CHARIOT RACE.

And so there were. In some countries more than half the population were slaves. And they did all the hard work. They were the farm laborers and mechanics and house servants. The Roman citizen had a contempt for all such occupations. He thought them fit only for slaves. His business was fighting, and, as we have seen, he generally had plenty of it to do.

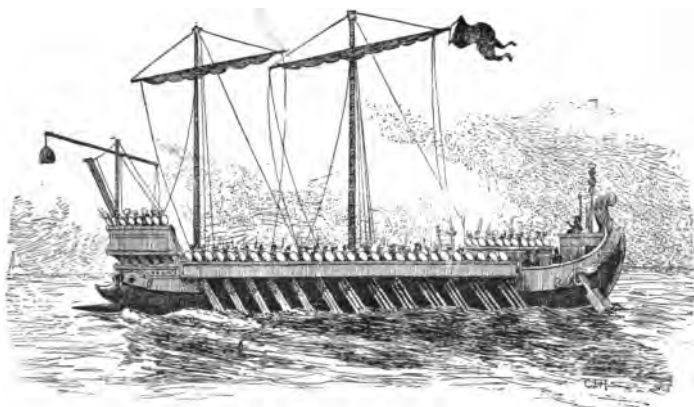
The defeat of the Aduatuci ended the campaign in Belgium, and all that part of Gaul was now conquered. Meanwhile Cæsar had been giving attention to other parts. While he was fighting the Nervians, he sent one of his lieutenants, Publius Crassus (son of the rich Crassus), with an army into the northwest — the province bordering the English Channel and the Atlantic ocean, now called Brittany. Crassus soon reported that he had brought the tribes in those districts under the dominion of Rome.

Thus in less than two years, Cæsar conquered nearly the whole of Gaul. His victories were celebrated at Rome by public thanksgiving, and festivities of various kinds, kept up for fifteen days, a longer term of rejoicing than had ever been known before for the victories of a Roman general.

But very soon one of the northwestern tribes — called the Ven'e-ti — was again in arms. These

people dwelt on the Atlantic coast. They were bold and skillful seamen, and they thought that they were more than a match for Cæsar, who had no fleet. The historian Froude thus describes their villages and ships:

“Their homes were on the Bay of Qui’beron and on the creeks and estuaries between the mouth of the Loire and Brest. Their villages were built on promontories, cut off at high tide from the mainland, approachable only by water, and not by water except in shallow vessels which could be grounded safely on the mud. The population were sailors and fishermen. They were ingenious and industrious, and they carried on a considerable trade in the Bay of Biscay and in the English Channel. They had ships capable of facing the heavy seas which rolled in from the Atlantic, flat-bottomed, with high bow and stern, built solidly of oak, with timbers a foot thick, fastened with large iron nails. They had iron chains for cables. Their sails were manufactured out of leather, because sailcloth was scarce, or because they thought canvas too weak for the strain of the winter storms. Such vessels were unwieldy, but had been found fit for voyages even to Britain. Their crews were accustomed to handle them, and knew all the rocks and shoals and harbors. They looked on the Romans as mere lands-



ROMAN WARSHIP

(64)

men, and they supposed that they had as little to fear from an attack by water as on land."

When Cæsar heard of the revolt of the Veneti, he set to work without delay to get ships. He ordered a fleet to be built on the Loire, and, as soon as it was ready, he sent it down that river to the sea. He himself soon followed, and took his place at the head of his land army.

But the great fight was between the two fleets. "The Veneti," says Froude, "had collected every ship that they or their allies possessed. They had 220 sail in all. Their vessels were too strong to be run down. The galleys [Cæsar's ships] carried turrets; but the bows and sterns of the Veneti were still too lofty to be reached by the Roman javelins. The Romans had the advantage in speed; but that was all. They too, however, had their plans. They had studied the construction of the Breton [Veneti] ships. They had provided sickles with long handles, with which they proposed to catch the halyards which held the weight of the heavy leather sails. Sweeping rapidly alongside they could easily cut them; the sails would fall, and the vessels would be unmanageable.

"A sea battle of this singular kind was thus fought off the eastern promontory of the Bay of Quiberon, Cæsar and his army looking on from the shore. The sickles answered well; ship after ship was disabled;

the galleys closed with them, and they were taken by boarding. The Veneti then tried to retreat; but a calm came on, and they could not move. The fight lasted from ten in the morning till sunset, when the entire Breton fleet was taken or sunk."

Meanwhile Crassus was in Aquitania—in the south-west. Cæsar had sent him there to prevent the tribes of that province from coming to the help of the Veneti. Crassus fought and won several battles, and in a short time subdued the whole of Aquitania.

All Gaul north, south, east and west, was now under the power of Rome, with the exception of a few unimportant districts. The tribes that were not conquered by Cæsar himself, or by his lieutenants, were so terrified by the reports of his victories that they submitted without a struggle.

This, however, did not mean that Gaul was finally subdued and that Cæsar was to have no more fighting in that country. The work of conquest had only been begun. The Celts, though beaten for the time, had not given up hope of being able some day to drive off the invaders. We shall see that they made brave attempts to do so.

V. A FAMOUS BRIDGE—CÆSAR IN BRITAIN.

Julius Cæsar whose remembrance yet
Lives in men's eyes; and will to ears and tongues
Be theme and hearing ever, was in this Britain,
And conquered it.

SHAKESPEARE.

Perhaps the most remarkable and interesting event of Cæsar's next campaign—that of the year 55 B. C.—was his invasion of Britain. But before undertaking this enterprise, he had serious work to do in Belgic Gaul. A vast horde of Germans—the U-sip'e-tes and Tenc-te'ri tribes—had crossed the Rhine, with the object of finding lands to settle on. The chiefs of these people came to Cæsar to ask him to let them make their home in Gaul. They said that if he consented, they would be friends of the Romans, but that if he refused, they would remain in spite of him and defend themselves.

Cæsar answered that there was no vacant land in Gaul for so many people, and that they must return at once to their own country. As the Germans did not seem willing to go, he marched against them and

defeated them in a battle, in which great numbers of them were slain.

After this battle Cæsar resolved to cross the Rhine into Germany, not for the purpose of making conquests, but to let the tribes there see that Roman power could reach them even in their own homes. And with the object of showing them also what Roman skill and energy could accomplish, he performed another wonderful feat in bridge-building, though he could have got boats enough to carry his army across the river. Cæsar himself gives us a description of this bridge, and many authors have written of it in words of admiration. Mr. Froude in his account of it, says:

“The river was broad, deep and rapid. The materials were still standing in the forest; yet in ten days from the first stroke that was delivered by an ax, a bridge had been made, standing firmly on rows of piles with a road over it forty feet wide.”

And the English writer, Mr. Trollope, in his book on Cæsar's Commentaries, remarks:

“When the breadth of the river is considered, its rapidity, and the difficulty which there must have been in finding tools and materials for such a construction, in a country so wild and so remote from Roman civilization, the creation of this bridge fills us with admiration for Cæsar's spirit and capacity.

He drove down piles into the bed of the river, two and two, prone against the stream. We could do that now, though hardly as quick as Cæsar did it; but we should want coffer-dams and steam-pumps, patent rammers, and a clerk of the works. He explains to us that he so built the foundations that the very strength of the stream added to their strength and consistency. In ten days the whole thing was done, and the army carried over."



CÆSAR'S BRIDGE ACROSS THE RHINE.

This famous bridge was built across the Rhine at a place between the present towns of Coblenz and Andernach, both situated on the banks of the river. Cæsar spent eighteen days on the German side and then returned to Gaul, after which he cut down the bridge, in order that the German "barbarians"

might not have so easy a means of again crossing the river, should they think of doing so.

Cæsar now resolved to proceed into Britain. The Britons had always sent help to the Gauls against him, and this is the reason he gives for his expedition to Bri-tan'ni-a, as the Romans called it. But we may be sure that Cæsar also desired to add to his fame by conquering a country about which so little was then known. Plutarch writes of it as "an island whose very existence was doubted," and says that "some had represented it as so large that others considered both the name and the thing as a fiction."

The earliest reliable account we have of Britain and its inhabitants is what Cæsar gives us. He says that the people were very numerous, and that they had a great many buildings and cattle. They used copper coin and iron rings as money. Tin was found in the middle of the island, and iron about the coast. It was against the religion of the natives to eat hares, chickens or geese, but they kept those animals for amusement. They lived on milk and flesh, and their clothing was made of skins. They dyed their bodies with woad, which produced a blue color, and gave them a terrible appearance in battle.

But the Britons were men of real courage, as well as "terrible appearance," and they made a brave fight against the Roman invaders. Charles Dick-

ens, the famous English novelist, has written this interesting account of it:

“Fifty-five years before the birth of our Saviour the Romans, under their great general, Julius Cæsar, were masters of all the rest of the known world. Julius Cæsar had then just conquered Gaul; and hearing, in Gaul, a good deal about the opposite island with the white cliffs, and about the bravery of the Britons who inhabited it—some of whom had been fetched over to help the Gauls in the war against him—he resolved, as he was so near, to come and conquer Britain next.

“So Julius Cæsar came sailing over to this island of ours, with eighty vessels and twelve thousand men. And he came from the French coast between Calais and Boulogne, ‘because thence was the shortest passage into Britain,’ just for the same reason that our own steamboats now take the same track every day. He expected to conquer Britain easily, but it was not such easy work as he supposed—for the bold Britons fought most bravely; and, what with not having his horse-soldiers with him (for they had been driven back by a storm), and what with having some of his vessels dashed to pieces by a high tide after they were drawn ashore, he ran great risk of being totally defeated. However, for once that the bold Britons beat him, he

beat them twice, though not so soundly but that he was very glad to accept their proposals of peace and go away.

“ But in the spring of the next year, he came back, this time, with eight hundred vessels and thirty thousand men. The British tribes chose as their general-in-chief a Briton, whom the Romans in their language called Cas-si-vel-lau'nus, but whose British name is supposed to have been Caswallon. A brave general he was, and well he and his soldiers fought the Roman army! So well, that whenever in that war the Roman soldiers saw a great cloud of dust, and heard the rattle of the rapid British chariots, they trembled in their hearts. Besides a number of smaller battles, there was a battle fought near Canterbury in Kent; there was a battle fought near Chertsey, in Surrey; there was a battle fought near a marshy little town in a wood, the capital of that part of Britain which belonged to Cassivellaunus, and which was probably near what is now St. Albans, in Hertfordshire.

“ However, brave Cassivellaunus had the worst of it, on the whole; though he and his men always fought like lions. As the other British chiefs were jealous of him, and were always quarrelling with him and with one another, he gave up and proposed peace. Julius Cæsar was very glad to grant peace

easily, and to go away again with all his remaining ships and men. He had expected to find pearls in Britain, and he may have found a few for anything I know; but at all events, he found delicious oysters, and I am sure he found tough Britons."

Tough as the Britons were, however, their country became a Roman province, and remained under the dominion of Rome for over four centuries. Other Roman generals made expeditions to the island after Cæsar's death, and completed the conquest which he had begun.

Soon after his return from Britain (about the end of the summer, B. C. 54), Cæsar found that the Belgian tribes were not yet quite subdued. Owing to a very dry season that year in Gaul, the harvest had not been good, and there was a great scarcity of provisions. Instead, therefore, of keeping his army together during the winter, as he had hitherto done, Cæsar was obliged to distribute his legions among several districts, sending one to one district and another to another. The Belgians considered that this gave them a good opportunity of freeing themselves from the power of Rome. It would be an easy matter, they thought, to destroy the legions one by one, much easier, at least, than to fight them all together with Cæsar at their head.

So the Belgians resolved to strike another blow

for freedom. One of the leaders of the revolt was Am-bi'o-rix, king or chief of the Eb-u-ro'nes, a tribe inhabiting the country near the Aduatuci. In this district a division of the Roman army, consisting of a legion and a half, was stationed in a fortified camp under the command of Ti-tu'ri-us Sa-bi'nus, a lieutenant of Cæsar. About 50 miles distant, but in different directions, there were two legions, one commanded by Titus La-bi-e'nus, the other by Quintus Cicero, brother of the great Roman orator.

Ambiorix decided to attack Sabinus first. Seeing that it would be difficult to take the camp by force, he tried an artifice which proved entirely successful. He sent a message to Sabinus telling him that the Gauls and Germans had got together a great army to destroy the Romans, and that all the legions were to be attacked on the same day, so that they should not be able to help one another. He pretended that he himself was friendly to Cæsar, and that he had tried to prevent his people from going against the Romans, but they were so determined upon it that he could not keep them back. He therefore advised Sabinus to depart immediately with his division and join Cicero or Labienus, and he promised that he would see to it that they should not be injured or molested on their march.

Sabinus fell into the snare thus laid for him. He believed the story of Ambiorix, and, against the advice and warning of his brother officers, he set out the following morning with his legion and a half. On the way and not far from the camp, they were met and surrounded by a large army with the treacherous Ambiorix at its head. The Romans, not expecting to meet an enemy, were unprepared for a battle. Nevertheless they fought bravely, but they were all killed, with the exception of a few who escaped through the neighboring woods. The imprudent Sabinus himself was amongst the slain.

Cicero was the next to be attacked, and the Gauls tried their artifice upon him too. But, though he had not yet heard of what had befallen Sabinus, he refused to move from his station. It was not the custom of the Roman people, he said, to accept any condition from an armed enemy. The Gauls then resolved to destroy him in his camp, or starve him into surrender, and they would probably have succeeded if he had not got help. They had 60,000 men, and a single legion could not hold out long against such numbers.

But Cicero contrived to send word to Cæsar, who was then at Amiens, 100 miles off, and knew nothing of the revolt of the tribes. Cæsar started off instantly to the rescue of his lieutenant. Before he

left he sent orders to some of his legions to meet him on the way, and he wrote to Cicero telling him that help was coming. The letter was written in Greek, so that the enemy could not read it, should it fall into their hands, and was carried by a friendly Gaul, who fastened it to his spear, which he threw over the fortifications into Cicero's camp.

The Gauls outside soon heard that Cæsar was coming, and immediately marched to meet him, thinking to overwhelm him by their superior numbers. They had 60,000 men while he had only 7,000. But the unconquerable Cæsar was a host in himself. His presence in an army was worth many legions. In the battle which took place, the Gauls were utterly defeated. Great numbers of them were slain, and all were deprived of their arms.

There was a good deal more fighting during the winter and spring (B. C. 54 and 53). Through the whole of it the Romans were everywhere victorious. The Belgic revolt was crushed, though Ambiorix escaped and was never taken.

The Gauls were now "a little quieter," as Cæsar tells us, but the next year (52 B. C.) they made another fight. It was the greatest of all their struggles against the power of Rome. The leader of it was Ver-cin-get'o-rix, a young chief of extraordinary ability and courage.

This revolt was well planned. The leading men of the tribes held secret meetings, at which it was resolved that there should be a general rising at the same time over the whole country. On the day appointed the war began by a massacre of Roman citizens in Cen'a-bum (now Orleans). The news that the first blow had thus been struck was sent from tribe to tribe by men posted on hills, who conveyed the intelligence from one to another by shouts or signals.

"The report," says Cæsar, "was quickly spread among all the states of Gaul; for whenever a very important event occurs, they give information of it in their lands and districts by a shout, others take it up in succession, and pass it to their neighbors, as then happened."

Cæsar was now in a situation of great difficulty and danger. Nearly all Gaul was up in arms against him. Most of his legions were stationed in the north. He was in the midst of a hostile race eager to avenge the defeats of six years, while Vercingetorix was among his own people, who were devoted to him as their national leader and champion.

There were many battles and sieges during the campaign. One of the plans of Vercingetorix was to burn the farmsteads, towns and villages over whole tracts of country, so that Cæsar might have

no source from which to get provisions for his legions. This was done in Auvergne, the district of which Vercingetorix himself was chief. But the town of A-va-ri'cum (now Bourges) was spared at the earnest request of its inhabitants. Cæsar laid siege to it, and captured it, though not until his soldiers had suffered severely from want of food.

The siege of Ger-go'vi-a (near the present Clermont) was the next event of importance. Here Cæsar met with his first and only failure during all his campaigns in Gaul. In an attempt to break into the town, 700 of his men were killed. After this he thought it prudent to raise the siege.

The Gauls now began to think that they were in a fair way to beat the Romans. But Cæsar was not to have a second failure. The siege of A-le'si-a (now St. Reine d'Alise) was the last great struggle of the campaign, and it was the end of the military career of Vercingetorix. Trollope thus describes this famous siege:

"Vercingetorix with his whole army is forced into the town, and Cæsar surrounds it with ditches, works, lines, and ramparts, so that no one shall be able to escape from it. Before this is completed, and while there is yet a way open of leaving the town, the Gaulish chief sends out horsemen, who are to go to the tribes of Gaul, and convene the

fighting men to that place, so that by their numbers they may raise the siege and expel the Romans.

"We find that these horsemen do as they are bidden, and that a great Gaulish conference is held, at which it is decided how many men shall be sent by each tribe. Vercingetorix has been very touching in his demand that all this shall be done quickly. He has food for the town for thirty days. Probably it may be stretched to last a little longer. Then, if the tribes are not true to him, he and the eighty thousand souls he has with him must perish.

"The horsemen make good their escape from the town, and Vercingetorix, with his eighty thousand hungry souls around him, prepares to wait. It seems to us when we think of what must have been the Gallia of those days, and when we remember how thirty days would now be from sufficing for such a purpose, that the difficulties to be overcome were insuperable. But Cæsar says that the tribes did send their men.

"Eight thousand horsemen and two hundred and forty thousand footmen assembled themselves in the territories of the Æduans. Alesia was north of the Æduans, amidst the Lin'go-nés. This enormous army chose its generals, and marched off to Alesia to relieve Vercingetorix. But the thirty days were past, and more than past, and the men and women

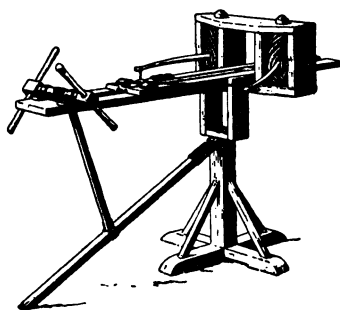
in Alesia were starving. No tidings ever had reached Alesia of the progress which was being made in the gathering of their friends. It had come to be very bad with them there. Some were talking of unconditional surrender. But the collected forces of Gaul do at last come up to attempt the rescue of Vercingetorix,—and indeed they come in time; were they able by coming to do anything. They attack Cæsar in his camp, and a great battle is fought beneath the eyes of the men in Alesia. But Cæsar is very careful that those who are now hemmed up in the town shall not join themselves to the Gauls who have spread all over the country around him. We hear how during the battle Cæsar comes up himself, and is known by the color of his cloak. We again feel, as we read his account of the fighting, that the Gauls nearly win, and that they ought to win. But at last they are driven headlong in flight—all the levies of all the tribes. The Romans kill very many; were not the labor of killing too much for them, they might kill all. A huge crowd, however, escapes, and the men scatter themselves back into their tribes.”

“On the next day Vercingetorix yields himself and the city to Cæsar. During the late battle he and his men shut up within the walls have been simply spectators of the fighting. Cæsar is sitting

in his lines before his camp; and there the chieftains, with Vercingetorix at their head, are brought up to him."

Thus at last conquered, the brave Vercingetorix was carried away a prisoner. A few years later he was led through the streets of Rome in one of the triumphal processions in honor of Cæsar's victories.

Though there was more fighting with several of the tribes, after the taking of Alesia, Cæsar had no serious difficulty in completing the conquest of Gaul. The Gallic chiefs now saw that further resistance was useless, and so they gave up the struggle. All Gaul was then made a Roman province, and Cæsar treated the people so justly that they became not only devoted to him, but content with their condition, and they resolved to maintain the peace which was now established.



CATAPULT.

VI. CÆSAR CROSSES THE RUBICON — "THE DIE IS CAST."

The Cæsar passed the Rubicon
With helm, and shield, and breastplate on,
Dashing his war-horse through the waters.

HALLECK.

His wonderful exploits in Gaul and Britain made Cæsar the greatest and most popular man of Rome. But the patrician class were still his enemies, and they now tried to take from him his authority as proconsul. We have seen that at first (58 B. C.) he was appointed for five years. His term was extended to ten years by a law passed 55 B. C.

This was part of an arrangement made by the triumvirate at a conference in the year 56 B. C. at Lucca, a town of Cisalpine Gaul. At that conference it was agreed that Pompey and Crassus should be consuls for the next year, 55 B. C.; that at the end of their term, Pompey should be made governor of Spain for five years, and Crassus governor of Syria, (Asia Minor) and that Cæsar should have ten years in Gaul, and be consul for the year 48 B. C.

But Crassus was killed in Asia in a war against

the Parthians, and Pompey's wife, the daughter of Cæsar, died in 54 B. C. Soon after this event these two great men became less friendly to each other. Pompey had grown jealous of Cæsar's success and popularity, and at last he went over to the Senate party.

This party then tried to prevent Cæsar from being made consul. There was a law that no person could be a candidate for the office while in command of an army, or without being present in Rome. But Cæsar's friends thought that on account of his great services to his country an exception ought to be made in his favor. They proposed, therefore, that he should be allowed to stand for the consulship without coming to the city.

The Senate refused to permit this, and moreover passed an order that Cæsar should give up his proconsulship and disband his army. Cæsar replied offering to disband if Pompey would do the same, that is, resign the military command he then held as proconsul of Spain. The Senate refused to accept Cæsar's offer, and it passed a decree that if he did not disband his army on a certain day, he would be declared an enemy of the Republic. It is said that the object of this decree was to get Cæsar to come to Rome, and that if he had come at that time, he would have been put to death after a mock trial.

But Cæsar was not to be caught so easily. He was then in Cisalpine Gaul with one legion of his army. When he heard of the decree of the Senate he talked to his soldiers, telling them of the wrong that had been done him, and appealing to them to defend their general from the malice of his enemies — “that general under whose command they had for nine years fought so many battles for their country.” The soldiers replied that they were ready to defend their general from all injuries.

The next event in the great contest was the famous crossing of the Ru’bi-con. This was a small river in the north of Italy, flowing into the Adriatic Sea near Ra-ven’na. It divided Cisalpine Gaul from the portion of the peninsula then under the direct government of the Roman Senate and people. Strangely enough, it is not now known which of the two or three little streams in that district was the celebrated Rubicon of Roman history.

But in Cæsar’s time it was a very important boundary. Roman law strictly forbade any Roman general to lead an army across the Rubicon into Italy. To do so was to declare war against the Republic. Hence the phrase, “to cross the Rubicon,” means to take a decisive step in a difficult or dangerous enterprise, or to adopt a measure from which one cannot recede.

The crossing of the Rubicon (49 B. C.) was, therefore, the beginning of the Civil War between Cæsar and Pompey. It is said that when Cæsar was about to cross the river, he spent some time thinking seriously over the great conflict which he knew was certain to follow. Plutarch thus tells the story:

“When he came to the river Rubicon which divides Cisalpine Gaul from the rest of Italy, his thoughts began to work. He was just entering upon the danger, and he wavered much in his mind when he considered the greatness of the enterprise into which he was throwing himself. He checked his course, and ordered a halt, while weighing within his own breast the arguments on both sides, and often changed his opinion one way and the other, without speaking a word. He then discussed the matter with his friends who were about him, calculating how many evils his crossing that river might bring upon the world, and what posterity might say of it. At last, like one who plunges down from the top of a precipice into a gulf of immense depth, he bade adieu to his reasonings, shut his eyes against the danger, and crying out, in the Greek language, ‘The die is cast,’ he immediately crossed the river.”

In sixty days after crossing the Rubicon Cæsar was master of all Italy, without fighting a battle. On his march through the country the people every-

where received him with shouts of welcome. They looked upon him as their friend and champion, and they were proud of him for his great victories. Thousands joined his army, so that very soon he had a force of nearly 30,000 men.

Meanwhile the Senate and its supporters were filled with terror. On the first report of Cæsar's coming nearly all of them fled in alarm from the city. Pompey had declared that by the "stamping of his foot" he could raise an army to defeat Cæsar, but he now found he could get no army in Italy to fight against the popular hero. There was nothing for him, therefore, to do but seek for help in some of the provinces, and so, embarking at Brun-di'si-um (now Brindisi) on the southeast Italian coast, he sailed across the Adriatic to Il-lyr'i-a, and at once set about collecting an army from various parts of Greece and Asia Minor. He also got together a great fleet with the intention of soon returning to Italy, to destroy Cæsar, and recover possession of Rome. This plan, as we shall see, was not carried out. Pompey never again set foot in his native land.

Cæsar meantime marched to Rome and entered the city. Here he remained only a few days. His enemies were active in several of the provinces, and he did not mean to give them time to bring their

forces into Italy. He resolved to go first to Spain, where there was a large army under the command of Pompey's lieutenants, A-fra'ni-us, Pe-tre'i-us and Varro. But before he left Rome, he issued an order, restoring their rights as citizens, and their property, to the children of those who had been proscribed by Sulla.

It was at this time that Cæsar took the money out of the Roman treasury, as has been mentioned in a previous chapter. The money was voted to him by the assembly of the people, but the Tribune Me-tel'us, a friend of Pompey, attempted to prevent the doors of the treasury from being opened. Cæsar threatened to put him to death, if he gave further trouble. "And young man," said he, "you know that this is harder for me to say than to do." He then took the money and spent it in paying and rewarding his soldiers.

On his way to Spain, Cæsar went to Mas-sil'i-a (modern Marseilles, south France), which was even then, as it is in our own time, the principal commercial port of the Mediterranean. As this important place would be a danger to him, if in possession of his enemies, he determined to take it. The inhabitants shut their gates against him, and they soon afterwards admitted one of Pompey's lieutenants and made him governor. Cæsar then laid siege to

the town, and leaving his lieutenants, Decimus Brutus and Caius Tre-bo'ni-us, to carry it on, he himself proceeded to Spain. He had sent his legions on before him, together with a number of horse and foot soldiers raised in Gaul.

The Spanish campaign occupied but a few weeks. It was chiefly in the neighborhood of I-ler'da (now Lerida), on the river Segre, near the foot of the Pyrenees mountains. There was not much fighting, but Afranius and Petreius were nearly successful in an attempt to prevent a supply of provisions from reaching Cæsar's army. Froude thus describes the campaign:

"In forty days from the time at which the armies came in sight of each other, Afranius and Petreius, with all their legions, were prisoners. Varro, in the south, was begging for peace, and all Spain lay at Cæsar's feet. At one moment he was almost lost. The melting of the snows in the mountains brought a flood down the Segre. The bridges were carried away, the fords were impassable, and the convoys [wagons of provisions accompanied by soldiers to guard them] were at the mercy of the enemy. News flew to Rome that all was over, that Cæsar's army was starving, that he was cut off between the rivers and in a few days must surrender.

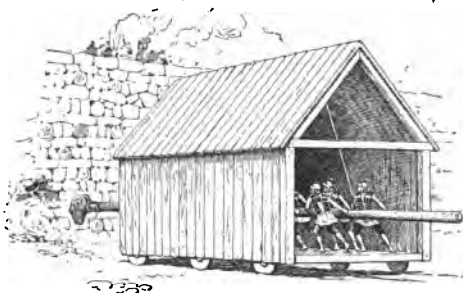
"The situation was indeed most critical. Even

Cæsar's own soldiers became unsteady. But resource in difficulties is the distinction of great generals. He had observed in Britain that the coast fishermen used boats made out of frames of wicker covered with skins. The river banks [in Spain] were fringed with willows. There were hides in abundance on the carcasses of the animals in the camp. Swiftly in these vessels the swollen waters of the Segre were crossed; the convoys were rescued."

Cæsar treated the prisoners very leniently. He let them all go free, only requiring them to promise that they would not again fight against him. Notwithstanding this promise, some of the officers joined Pompey's army, but on the other hand, a number of the soldiers enlisted for service in Cæsar's legions.

Returning from Spain by way of Marseilles, Cæsar found the people of that city ready to surrender, after suffering terribly from hunger and disease. The keys of the gates were given up to him, and he "spared the town, more," he tells us, "on account of its fame and antiquity [it was founded by the Greeks B. C. 600] than because the inhabitants deserved his good will. He left two legions as a guard there, sent the rest of his army to Italy, and set out himself for Rome."

On arriving in the city he was made dictator, and soon afterwards was elected consul for the following year (48 B. C.). He remained in Rome only eleven days, and before he left, he resigned the office of dictator. "Eleven days," says Froude, "were all he could afford to Rome. So swift was Cæsar that his greatest exploits were measured by days. He had to settle accounts with Pompey while it was still winter, and while Pompey's preparations for the invasion of Italy were still incomplete; and he and his veterans, scarcely allowing themselves a breathing time, went down to Brindisi."



BATTERING RAM.

VII. POMPEY DEFEATED.

Now to Pharsalia where the smarting strokes
Of our resolved contention must resound.—

CHAPMAN.

The final struggle between the two greatest men of Rome was now approaching. Cæsar with his army of about 30,000 men was at Brundisium. Pompey had more than twice the number on the opposite coast at Dy-ra'chi-um (now Durazzo) in Macedonia.

Having resolved to prevent his enemy from coming to attack him in Italy, Cæsar had to take his legions across the strait. This was not an easy thing to do, as he had but twelve warships, and transport vessels enough to carry only half his army, while Pompey's fleet was on the watch at several points along the Macedonian shore.

But the great Cæsar was not to be stopped in his career of conquest. "He liked well," says Froude, "to descend like a bolt out of the blue sky; and for the very reason that no ordinary person would, under such circumstances, have thought of attempting the passage, he determined to try it." And he

succeeded. He set sail with 15,000 men and 500 horse, and reached the other side without encountering an enemy at sea. He landed near Apollo'ni-a, a town some distance south of Dyrrachium.

The first thing he did on his arrival was to send a message to Pompey proposing that both should disband their armies, and leave their differences to be settled by the Roman Senate and people. Pompey did not return an answer to this message. He perhaps did not wish for a peaceful settlement, and some of his officers would be satisfied with nothing less than "Cæsar's head," as we learn from Cæsar's own account.

Between Pompey's and Cæsar's camp there was only the river Apsus, a narrow stream flowing into the sea between Dyrrachium and Apollonia, and the soldiers of the opposing armies frequently conversed with each other. By a private agreement among themselves no weapons were used during their meetings. Cæsar sent Vatin'ius, one of his lieutenants, to make proposals of peace. He received an answer that next day there would be a conference, at which delegates from both sides might be present, and explain their wishes. When the delegates met, their minds seemed to be eagerly intent on peace, but their conversation was suddenly interrupted by darts thrown from all sides. Vatinus escaped death only

by the protection of his soldiers. As the meeting was breaking up, Labienus, who had fought under Cæsar in Gaul, but was now a lieutenant of Pompey, cried out, "Talk to us no more about an agreement; there can be no peace until you bring us Cæsar's head."

All hope of friendly settlement was, therefore, at an end, but before Cæsar could attempt any fighting he had to get the remainder of his army over from Brundisium. They were there in charge of his faithful friend and lieutenant, Mark An'to-ny, whose famous oration at Cæsar's funeral, as rendered by the poet Shakespeare, is quoted in many of our books of poetry.

For several months Antony could not put to sea with his legions, for the harbor of Brundisium was blocked up by Pompey's war vessels. Tired of waiting, Cæsar resolved upon an enterprise, the story of which Plutarch thus relates:

"Cæsar, not having a sufficient force at Apollonia to make head against the enemy, and seeing that the troops at Brundisium delayed to join him, undertook a most astonishing enterprise. He embarked without anyone's knowledge, in a boat of twelve oars to cross over to Brundisium, though the sea was at that time covered with a vast fleet of the enemy's. He got on board in the night time, in the dress of a

slave, and throwing himself down like a person of no consequence, lay along at the bottom of the vessel.

“The river A’ni-us was to carry them down to the sea, and there used to blow a gentle gale every morning from the land, which by driving the waves forward, made it calm at the mouth of the river. But this night there had blown a strong wind from the sea, and it overpowered the gale from the land, so that the river was extremely rough where it met the influx of sea-water and the opposition of the waves. The master of the boat thinking, therefore, that he could not make the passage, ordered his sailors to tack about and return. Cæsar then rose up and showing himself to the pilot, who was surprised to see him there, said, ‘Go on, my friend, and fear nothing; you carry Cæsar.’

“When the sailors heard this, they forgot the storm, and laying all their strength to their oars, they did what they could to force their way down the river. But it was to no purpose, for the vessel now began to take water, and so Cæsar, finding himself in such danger in the very mouth of the river, permitted the master to turn back.”

But soon afterward, Antony succeeded in making the passage, and Cæsar, having thus got all his legions together, prepared to move against the enemy. In the first important conflict, however,

which was at the siege of Pe'tra, near Dyrrachium, he met with a serious defeat. Trollope thus describes the situation of both armies:

“There was a steep rocky promontory called Petra, or the rock, some few miles north of Dyrrachium, from whence there was easy access to the sea. At this point Pompey could touch the sea, but between Petra and Dyrrachium Cæsar held the country. Here, on this rock, taking in for the use of his army a certain somewhat wide amount of pasturage at the foot of the rock, Pompey placed his army, and made intrenchments all round from sea to sea, fortifying himself, as all Roman generals knew how to do, with a bank and ditch and twenty-four turrets and earth-works. So placed, he had all the world at his back to feed him. Not only could he get at that wealth of stores which he had amassed at Dyrrachium, and which were safe from Cæsar, but the coasts of Greece and Asia and Egypt were open to his ships. Two things only were wanting to him — sufficient grass for his horses, and a supply of water. The country at his back was one so unproductive, being rough and mountainous, that the inhabitants themselves were in ordinary times fed upon imported corn.

“Nevertheless, Cæsar, having got the body of his enemy, as it were, imprisoned at Petra, was determ-

ined to keep his prisoner fast. So round and in front of Pompey's lines he also made other lines, from sea to sea. He began by erecting turrets and placing small detachments on the little hills outside Pompey's lines, so as to prevent his enemy from getting to the grass. Then he joined these towers by lines, and in this way surrounded the other lines, — thinking that so Pompey would not be able to send out his horsemen for forage; and again that the horses inside at Petra might gradually be starved."

And Cæsar would, perhaps, have been able to prevent Pompey for a long time from sending out his horsemen, had it not been for the treachery of two Gauls whom he had in his camp. Cæsar had been very kind to these men, but he had been obliged to check them for some misconduct. Taking offense at this, they went over to Pompey and told him of all Cæsar's plans, and of the ditches and forts and mounds that he had not yet finished. Pompey then knew what to do. With his boats he sent a large body of men ashore at night between Cæsar's lines at their weakest point. So in the battle, or rather battles — for there were two of them — that took place the next day, Cæsar's men were badly beaten. Nearly a thousand of them were slain.

Great was the joy of the senators and patricians at this victory. For a number of them had left Italy

and joined Pompey, and now they thought that their terrible enemy was at last conquered, and that the war was as good as over. They reported to Rome that Cæsar had fled and that his army was nearly destroyed.

But soon there was another story to tell. Three months after the battles at Petra, Cæsar and Pompey met again. Cæsar had moved into the country, taking possession of important towns on the way, and getting provisions for his troops. In a little while Pompey followed him. For several days the two armies marched along in sight of each other. At last they came to a stand on the plain of Phar-sa'li-a, in Thes'sa-ly, a country of north Greece. Here on the 9th of August, 48 B. C. was fought the famous battle which ended the contest between those two great rivals.

In this, as in most of his other battles, Cæsar fought against superior numbers. Pompey had 45,000 foot soldiers, and 7,000 horsemen. Cæsar had not half so many, but his soldiers were hardy veterans, who had served in numerous campaigns. Pompey, too, had veterans in his ranks, but his cavalry, on which he chiefly relied, was made up of young men of patrician families, who had little experience of the hardships of war. They felt so sure, however, of victory that for many days, we are told,

they had been disputing and contending among themselves about the high offices and places of profit and power at Rome, which they were to have after the defeat of Cæsar.

Before the battle, Cæsar, according to his custom, made a speech to his soldiers. He reminded them of "the earnestness with which he had sought peace," and he said that it was not his wish "that the Republic should be deprived of one or other of her armies." The trumpets were then sounded for the charge, and the great fight began. Cæsar himself thus tells about it:

"Our men, when the signal was given, rushed forward with their javelins ready, but seeing that Pompey's men did not run to meet their charge, and being practised in former battles, they slackened their speed, and halted almost midway, that they might not come up with the enemy when their own strength was exhausted. After a short pause they renewed their course, threw their javelins, and instantly drew their swords. Pompey's men did not fail in this crisis. They received our javelins, withstood our charge, and kept their ranks. Then having cast their javelins, they drew their swords. At the same time Pompey's cavalry rushed out from his left wing, and his whole host of archers poured after them. Our cavalry gave ground a little, upon which

Pompey's horse pressed them more vigorously, and began to file off in troops, and flank our army [attack them on the side]. When Cæsar saw this, he gave the signal to his fourth line, which he had formed of six cohorts [about 500 men each]. They instantly rushed forward and charged Pompey's horse with such fury, that not a man of them stood; but all wheeling about, not only quitted their post, but galloped off to seek a refuge in the highest mountains. The archers and slingers, being thus left defenceless, were all killed."

There was little more fighting. "Pompey's men were not able to hold their ground, but all fled," and Pompey's last battle was over. We are told that Cæsar, noticing many dead bodies of patricians scattered about on the plain, said in a mournful voice, "They would have it so. I, Caius Cæsar, notwithstanding all I have done for my country, should have been condemned by them as a criminal, if I had disbanded my army."

When Pompey saw that all was lost, he fled from the field to the seashore accompanied by a few friends. After many adventures he succeeded in reaching Lesbos, an island in the Mediterranean, where he had sent his wife for safety during the war. From Lesbos he sailed for Egypt. The king of that country at this time was named Ptol'e-my.

Some years before, Pompey had rendered great service to this king's father, and he now expected the gratitude of at least a friendly reception. But Ptolemy's counsellors advised that Pompey should be put to death, saying that the king might thus gain the good will and friendship of Cæsar. This shameful proposal was approved and carried out. As he was about to land on the coast of Egypt, Pompey was murdered by A-chil'las, one of the king's officers. Such was the end of Pompey the Great. The Roman poet Lucan describes the tragedy of his death in lines which have been thus translated from the Latin:

Now in the boat defenceless Pompey sate,
 Surrounded and abandon'd to his fate.
 Nor long they hold him in their power aboard,
 Ere every villain drew his ruthless sword.
 The chief perceiv'd their purpose soon, and spread
 His Roman gown with patience o'er his head:
 And when the curs'd Achillas pierc'd his breast,
 His rising indignation close repress'd.
 No sighs, no groans, his dignity profan'd,
 Nor tears his still unsullied glory stained:
 Unmov'd and firm he fix'd him on his seat,
 And died, as when he liv'd and conquer'd, great.

VIII. VICTORIES IN AFRICA AND ASIA— REJOICINGS IN ROME.

We make holiday to see Cæsar, and
to rejoice in his triumph.

SHAKESPEARE.

When Cæsar heard that Pompey had sailed for Egypt, he set out in pursuit, with two legions of his army, and a dozen warships. He did not reach that country, however, until after Pompey's death. It is said that he wept when he was told of the fate of his great rival, and afterwards, when any of those who had been the companions of Pompey were taken by the Egyptians, and brought to him, he treated them with much kindness, and received them into his own service. In writing to friends in Rome at this time he said that the chief enjoyment he had of victory was in saving every day one or other of his fellow-citizens who had borne arms against him.

But Cæsar soon found himself in a dangerous situation in Egypt. He had given offense to the people of Al-ex-an'dri-a, the Egyptian capital, by marching into the city attended by his lictors carrying the consular fasces—the emblems of Roman

power. The Egyptians regarded this as an insult to their king, for it seemed to them to mean that Cæsar wished to exercise supreme authority in their country.

Another cause of offense to the Egyptians was that Cæsar claimed the right to act as judge in a quarrel then going on between the young king Ptolemy and his sister Cle-o-pa'tra. These were the children of a former Ptolemy, who had left the kingdom to them to rule over jointly as king and queen; and made the Roman people their guardians and the executors of his will. But the Egyptians did not want Cleopatra to have any share in the government, and so they banished her from the country and made her brother sole sovereign.

Cæsar, as representative of the Roman people, undertook to settle the matter, and he decided in favor of Cleopatra, ordering that she should be permitted to reign jointly with her brother, in accordance with their father's will. Ptolemy and his friends refused to submit to the decision, and they declared Cæsar an enemy of Egypt, and sent an army against him into Alexandria. This famous city named after Alexander the Great, by whom it was founded 332 B. C., is situated on the Mediterranean coast, at one of the mouths of the river Nile.

The war thus begun in Egypt continued for sev-

eral months, during which Cæsar was often in the greatest danger. The Egyptians attempted to seize his ships in the harbor so as to prevent him from getting help, either in men or provisions, from outside. Cæsar defeated them by setting fire to their whole fleet. Some of the burning vessels were so near the quay that the flames caught the neighboring houses, and spread into the city. In this fire the famous Alexandrian Library, which contained 400,000 manuscript books, was destroyed. Thus were lost forever the works of many ancient authors. For in those times, the art of printing being unknown, books had to be all in writing. Therefore there could be but few copies in existence of any one book, and, perhaps, of a great many there might be only one copy, since it took so much time and labor to write them, and there were so few people who knew how to do such work.

Another attempt of the Egyptians against Cæsar was a scheme to deprive him of water for his army. The water supply in Alexandria was got from the Nile at the time of its annual overflow. It was conveyed through canals from the river into great reservoirs, or tanks, constructed underground, and in every house there was an opening like the mouth of a well, through which the water was drawn up in buckets. Ganymed, the Egyptian general, caused

large quantities of sea water to be pumped out of the harbor, and poured into the canals leading to Cæsar's quarter of the town, thus rendering the water there unfit to drink. But Cæsar was again more than a match for the Egyptians. He set his men to work digging wells, and they exerted themselves so vigorously that in the very first night plenty of fresh water was found.

During this war, which is known as the Alexandrian war, there were many hard-fought conflicts in the city and in the harbor. In one of them, Cæsar came very near losing his life. He had attempted to seize the small island of Pharos, lying close to the coast, and had landed upon it, but after a great deal of fighting, he and his men were driven to the water's edge, and obliged to take to their ships. On reaching his own galley, Cæsar found it was in danger of sinking from the multitude that had crowded aboard. Flinging himself into the sea, he swam to a vessel that lay at some distance, and it is said that he took with him a bundle of valuable papers, which he held up and kept safe from the water with one hand, while he swam with the other.

The end of the war in Egypt was the battle of the Nile. It took place near the southern point of the tract of country lying between the two main branches by which the Nile empties itself into the

Mediterranean Sea. This was called the Delta, its shape resembling that of the letter Delta of the Greek alphabet, which is in form a triangle, and hence the same name is given to any portion of land enclosed between the mouths of a river.

Cæsar having but a few legions in Egypt, might have fared badly at the battle of the Nile, had it not been for the help of Mithridates, king of Per'ga-mus, in Asia Minor, who came with an army to assist him. They defeated Ptolemy, and Ptolemy himself was drowned in the river in trying to escape.

Thus was ended the Alexandrian war 47 B. C. Cæsar then made Cleopatra and a younger brother joint rulers of Egypt. Soon afterwards he sailed to Asia Minor where he won a great battle near the town of Ze'la, in the Roman province of Pontus. This province had been invaded by Phar'na-ces, king of the neighboring country of Ar-me'ni-a, who refused or delayed to withdraw when ordered by Cæsar to do so. But at Zela the army of Pharnaces was almost totally destroyed. This was Cæsar's shortest campaign. It is said that he sent the news of his victory to Rome in the famous and oft quoted Latin words, *Veni, Vidi, Vici*, (*I came, I saw, I conquered*), which well express the rapidity of his movements against the Armenian king.

Cæsar then returned to Rome, where he was en-

thusiastically welcomed by the people; but he had soon to start out to fight the Pompeian party again, for they had not yet given up hope of recovering their lost power. Many of the leaders of that party had gone to Africa after their defeat at Pharsalia. They were now getting ready an army there, with the assistance of King Juba of Nu-mid'i-a, and they had a large fleet on the Mediterranean.

The Roman province in Africa was the northern portion of that continent, which lies opposite to the island of Sicily. This was now the scene of conflict for several months. The Pompeian generals were Marcus Ca'to and Metellus Sci'pi-o. Cato was a virtuous and patriotic man, but a bitter enemy of Cæsar. Scipio was father-in-law of Pompey. The final event of the campaign was the battle of Thapsus (46 B. C.), in which Cæsar defeated Scipio and King Juba. Thapsus was a coast town on a small peninsula of the same name. Juba, Cato and Scipio lost their lives in this war, and Numidia was made a Roman province. Cato died in defending the town of U'ti-ca, hence he is known as Cato Uticensis.

Within six months from the time he set out for Africa, Cæsar was back in Rome. He now had his great triumphs—one each for his victories over the Gauls, Egyptians, Pharnaces and King Juba. Triumphs were not allowed for victories won over

Roman citizens, and so there was none for Pharsalia. The triumphs of Cæsar were the grandest ever seen in Rome. On four different days there were four magnificent processions in which the conqueror was borne through the city with his legions, and his spoils of war, and his captives, among whom was the brave but unfortunate Gallic chief Vercingetorix.

Besides the grand processions there were games and shows of various kinds, and the citizens, we are told, were entertained all together at one feast, at which there were twenty-two thousand tables. There was also a distribution of lands and money among the soldiers and poorer citizens. Each of the latter got a sum equal to about \$10, and each private soldier got about \$80. Larger sums were given to the officers.

After thus celebrating his victories and rewarding his soldiers, Cæsar turned his attention to reforming various departments of the government. He made many improvements in the Senate, in the public offices, and in the system of elections, and he enforced the good Julian laws, which he himself had got passed in his first consulship.

One of his most useful works was the reform of the calendar. Before his time the Romans had no leap year. Either they did not know the exact length of a year, or being almost always engaged in

war, they had failed to give sufficient attention to the matter. They found themselves, therefore, all wrong in their months and seasons. In the course of many years the additional day in every four years — which they took no count of — made a great error. Occasionally they tried to get right by adding or inserting days, but having no regular system, they never got their calendar exactly correct. Cæsar, with the help of an Egyptian astronomer, arranged the plan of a leap year, and fixed the number of days in each month as we now have them. From his name this new system was called the Julian Calendar.

While Cæsar was thus engaged carrying out great measures and forming new plans for the public good, his enemies were preparing for another fight. Pompey's sons—Cneius and Sextus—had resolved to carry on the war, and Labienus had joined them in raising an army in Spain. News now came to Rome that the whole of that country was up against Cæsar. With his usual promptness, he set out for the field of action and reached Spain much sooner than he was expected. He arrived there with his legions at the end of the year 46 B. C., accompanied by his sister's grandson, Oc-ta'vi-us, then a boy of 17, afterwards the Emperor Au-gus'tus.

The campaign lasted about three months, during

which there were many sieges and skirmishes in different parts of the country. Cæsar was victorious in nearly every one of them. The great conflict was on March 17, 45 B. C., at Munda, near Corduba (now Cordova). It is said to have been one of the most desperate battles in which Cæsar had ever been engaged. Goldsmith thus describes it in his *History of Rome*—

“Pompey drew up his men, by break of day, upon the declivity of a hill, with great exactness and order. Cæsar drew up likewise in the plains below; and after advancing a little way from his trenches, he ordered his men to make a halt, expecting the enemy to come down the hill. This delay made Cæsar’s soldiers begin to murmur; while Pompey’s with full vigor poured down upon them, and a dreadful conflict ensued. The first shock was so dreadful, that Cæsar’s men, who had hitherto been used to conquer, now began to waver. Cæsar was never in so much danger as now; he threw himself several times into the very thickest of the battle. ‘What,’ cried he, ‘are you going to give up to a parcel of boys [meaning Pompey’s sons] your general, who is grown gray in fighting at your head?’ Upon this, his tenth legion exerted themselves with more than usual bravery; and a party of horse being detached by Labienus from the camp in pursuit of

a body of Numidian cavalry, Cæsar cried aloud that they were flying. This cry instantly spread itself through both armies, exciting the one as much as it depressed the other. Now, therefore, the tenth legion pressed forward, and a total rout soon ensued. Thirty thousand men were killed on Cneius Pompey's side, and amongst them Labienus, whom Cæsar ordered to be buried with the funeral honors of a general officer."

This was Cæsar's last battle. His campaigns were now over. On his return to Rome he was again welcomed with great popular rejoicing, and extraordinary honors were conferred upon him. He was made dictator and *Im-pe-ra'tor* (commander-in-chief, or emperor) for life. Statues of him were erected in every town. His portrait was struck on medals and coins with the inscription, *Pa'ter Pa'tri-æ* (Father of his Country). It was ordered that the anniversary of his birth should always be kept as a holiday. The name of the month in which he was born was changed to *Julius* (July). This month had previously been called *Quin-ti'lis* which means *fifth*. It was the fifth month, March being the first month of the Roman year.

Cæsar now began to carry out vast schemes of improvement in different parts of the empire. He beautified Rome by magnificent public buildings,

he founded libraries, built roads, established colonies in many of the provinces; and these great and useful works gave employment to large numbers of the people. Many other projects and enterprises he had intended to undertake. He proposed to drain and turn into profitable land the immense swamps near Rome, known as the Pontine Marshes; to dig a new channel for the Tiber from Rome to the sea, so as to provide deeper and safer passage for ships; to construct harbors and aqueducts, and to erect mounds along the shore at the mouth of the Tiber to prevent the water from breaking in upon the land. He also proposed to cut a canal through the isthmus of Corinth in Greece.*

Thus the mind of Cæsar was constantly active in devising grand schemes for the public good. "He was born," says Plutarch, "to do great things. The many exploits he had performed did not incline him to sit down and enjoy the glory of what he had done, but rather raised in him ideas of still greater achievements."

* This great undertaking, designed by Cæsar, was not accomplished until our own time. The canal was opened for traffic in 1893. It took eleven years to construct it, and it cost \$5,000,000.

IX. CÆSAR'S DEATH.

O mighty Cæsar ! Dost thou lie so low ?
Are all thy conquests, glories, triumphs, spoils,
Shrunk to this little measure ? Fare thee well.

SHAKESPEARE.

But while Cæsar was planning and accomplishing great projects for the benefit of his country, a conspiracy was formed to kill him, and it was carried out in the Senate house itself, on the Ides (15th) of March, 44 B. C. The Romans had certain days in each month, called *Calends*, *Nones*, and *Ides*. The *Calends* were the first of every month. In March, May, July and October, the *Nones* were the 7th and the *Ides* the 15th. In the other months the *Nones* were the 5th and the *Ides* the 13th. The other days were counted backward from these, thus, 3rd before the *Ides*, &c.

The leaders of the conspiracy against Cæsar were men to whom he had been a generous friend. Chief amongst them were Bru'tus and Cas'si-us. Both had fought against Cæsar at Pharsalia, yet he afterwards conferred many favors upon them. Through his assistance they had been made prætors for the year

44 B. C. — the very year of the conspiracy. Amongst the others who took an active part in the plot were Trebonius, Cimber, Casca and Li-ga'ri-us.

These and others of the conspirators, who numbered in all about 60, were jealous of Cæsar. They envied his great power, and some of them hated him because he had defeated all their attempts against him. So they resolved to take his life, and they fixed upon the Ides of March for the execution of their design.

On that day it was to be proposed in the Senate by Cæsar's friends that he should be made king. This title of king, as we have said, was hateful to the Roman people. On several occasions, we are told, they showed their strong dislike to the idea that it should be conferred even on Cæsar, whom they loved and revered. They were willing that he should have the power, but they could not bear the name of king. We read in Plutarch that "one day when Cæsar was returning to Rome from Alba [a neighboring city], some persons ventured to salute him by the title of king. Seeing that the people were troubled at this strange compliment, he put on an air of displeasure, and said his name was not king but Cæsar."

On another occasion during the celebration of a public festival called the Lu-per-ca'li-a, at which a great multitude of citizens were present, Mark

Antony offered Cæsar a royal crown saying, "This crown the Roman people confer upon Cæsar by my hands." A few of the people applauded, but when Cæsar refused the crown and pushed it away from him, the crowd burst into loud cheers. Antony pressed him again and again to accept, and, as he still refused, the shouts of the people were louder and louder.

But it has been thought that though Cæsar refused the crown, he would have accepted it, if popular feeling had been favorable to the proposal. At all events it was proposed that it should be offered to him in the Senate house on the Ides of March, and the conspirators decided that the same place and time would be the most proper for the execution of their project.

We are told that Cæsar had warnings of his approaching fate. There is a story of a soothsayer, named Spu-ri'na, having told him that some evil was to happen to him on the Ides of March. As he was entering the Senate house on the day of the murder, Cæsar met this man, and said to him in a cheerful voice, "Well, Spurina, the Ides of March are come," to which the soothsayer replied, "Yes, but they are not gone."

We are also told that on the same day, a Greek named Ar-tem-i-do'rus handed him a letter, saying,

“Cæsar, read this to yourself and quickly, for it contains matter of great importance, which concerns you very closely,” The letter gave an account of the plot. Cæsar attempted several times to read it, but was interrupted by people talking to him, or handing him papers.

There is another story that on the night before the murder, Cal-pur'ni-a, Cæsar's wife, dreamt that she was weeping over her husband as she held him, murdered, in her arms. In the morning she begged him not to go out that day. Cæsar seemed disposed to yield to her entreaty, and thought of sending a message to the Senate that he would not come. But the conspirators had arranged that Dec'i-mus Brutus, one of their number, should call at Cæsar's house a short time before the hour fixed for the meeting of the Senate, and make sure of his going. This was not the Brutus famous in history as one of the chiefs of the conspiracy. “He was a person,” says Plutarch, “in whom Cæsar placed such confidence that he had appointed him his second heir, yet he was engaged in the conspiracy with the other Brutus and with Cassius.”

Persuaded by Decimus Brutus, Cæsar, in spite of forebodings, went to the Senate house on the fated day. When he entered, all the Senators rose to do him honor. He took his seat in a chair of state at



DEATH OF CÆSAR.

the foot of a statue of Pompey. As had been arranged, Cimber presented a petition praying for the pardon of his brother who had been banished from Italy by Cæsar. All the conspirators crowded round, urging him to grant the request. Displeased at their persistence, Cæsar attempted to rise. Cimber then seized him by the robe, and pulled him down. This was the signal for attack. Casca struck him on the neck, but inflicted only a slight wound. Cæsar turned quickly round crying out, "Villain! Casca, what dost thou mean?" Then all the conspirators drew their swords, "and surrounded him in such a manner," says Plutarch, "that whatever way he turned he saw nothing but steel gleaming in his face, and met nothing but wounds." Cæsar defended himself for some moments as vigorously as he could, with a sharp pointed style which he held in his hand. But when he saw Brutus among the murderers he exclaimed, "You, too, Brutus!" and, drawing his robe over his face, he gave up the struggle. He fell at the base of Pompey's statue pierced by twenty-three wounds.

Then burst his mighty heart,
 And in his mantle muffling up his face,
 Even at the base of Pompey's statuä,
 Which all the while ran blood, great Cæsar fell.

SHAKESPEARE.

Thus died in the 56th year of his age the greatest of all the Romans. He was honored by a great public funeral, which was held in the forum, and attended by a vast multitude of citizens. The body was laid on a grand couch ornamented with ivory and gold, and an eloquent funeral oration was delivered by Mark Antony. The Romans usually burned the bodies of their dead and deposited the ashes in the family tomb. Cæsar's body was burned in the forum, on the couch where it lay, and the people threw upon the blazing pile everything they could find at hand. Soldiers threw their weapons, musicians their instruments, and at last the fire became so great that it spread to some of the buildings around the forum, and it was with great difficulty they were saved from destruction.

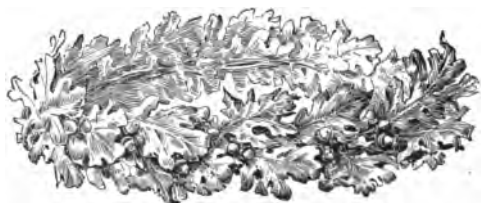
Thus the Roman people paid honor to their dead hero. They also erected a monument to his memory on which they put the inscription,

TO THE FATHER OF HIS COUNTRY.

This was a nobler title than king. In our own country it has been adopted as one of the distinctions of the great man who was our first president. The Roman people gave it to Cæsar because they loved him as their friend and champion. Many eminent authors have written about Cæsar, and

nearly all in words of the highest praise and admiration. Truly his name is

“One of the few, the immortal names
That were not born to die.”



SHAKESPEARE'S STORY OF THE DEATH OF CÆSAR.

In his play of *Julius Cæsar*, Shakespeare tells in a very interesting way the story of the death of the illustrious Roman whom he calls "the foremost man



British Museum.

CÆSAR.

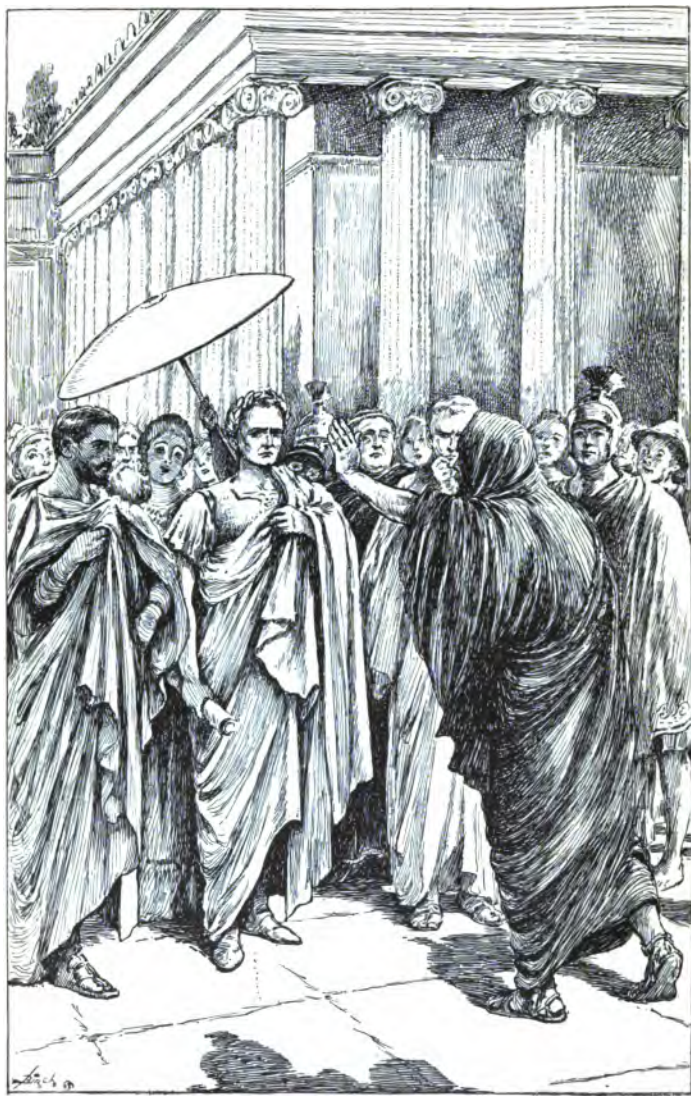
of all the world." The narrative follows closely the facts as recorded in history, while being enhanced with the imaginative and poetic power of the greatest of dramatists.

Cæsar's last victory, as we have seen, was in Spain where he defeated the sons of Pompey. On his return to Rome the citi-

zens were eager to see and welcome the hero, of whose exploits they were proud, and so they thronged the streets and made holiday for the occasion. But

there were some, chiefly of the official class, and members of the Senate, who were not friendly to Cæsar. They disliked him because they were jealous of his popularity and power. To this class belonged the two tribunes Fla'vi-us and Ma-rul'lus, who are represented in the opening of Shakespeare's play as addressing a crowd in the streets, upbraiding them in rough words for their ingratitude in so soon forgetting the great deeds of Pompey. "Go home you idle creatures," said Flavius, "is this a holiday?" One of the crowd answered that they were making it a holiday "to see Cæsar and rejoice in his triumph." Then the tribunes became very angry and Marullus thus gave expression to his indignation—

"You blocks, you stones, you worse than senseless things ;
 O, you hard hearts, you cruel men of Rome,
 Knew you not Pompey? Many a time and oft
 Have you climb'd up to walls and battlements,
 To towers and windows, yea, to chimney-tops,
 Your infants in your arms, and there have sat
 The live-long day, with patient expectation,
 To see great Pompey pass the streets of Rome,
 And when you saw his chariot but appear,
 Have you not made a universal shout,
 That Tiber trembled underneath her banks,
 To hear the replication of your sounds,
 Made in her concave shores ?



A SOOTHSAYER WARNS CÆSAR.

And do you now put on your best attire?
 And do you now cull out a holiday?
 And do you now strew flowers in his way
 That comes in triumph over Pompey's blood?

Begone:

Run to your houses, fall upon your knees,
 Pray to the gods to intermit the plague
 That needs must light on this ingratitude."

Now this day of popular rejoicing in the triumph of Cæsar happened to be the feast of the Lupercalia, which the Romans celebrated every year in honor of the god Lu-per'cus or Pan. One of the ceremonies on those occasions was what Shakespeare calls "the holy chase," in which two young men of high rank ran over a certain course, bearing in their hands thongs of leather. With these they whipped all whom they met, and many people, especially women, put themselves directly in the way of the running youths, and stretched out their hands eager to receive the blows, which they believed would bring great blessings upon them.

A grand procession attended Cæsar to the Lupercalia celebrations. He himself was at the head of it, accompanied by his wife Calpurnia, and his friend Mark Antony, besides other distinguished citizens, including Brutus, Cassius and Casca, and Cicero, the famous orator. In the crowd there was

a soothsayer, and even above the sounding of trumpets and the shouting of the multitudes, his shrill voice, "shriller than all the music," could be heard crying out, "Cæsar beware the Ides of March." Cæsar, too, heard the voice, and he ordered the man to be brought before him.

"Cæsar. Set him before me; let me see his face.

Cassius. Fellow, come from the throng; look upon Cæsar,

Cæsar. What say'st thou to me now? Speak once again.

Soothsayer. Beware the Ides of March.

Cæsar. He is a dreamer; let us leave him: — pass."

The procession passed on, but Brutus and Cassius remained behind, conversing with each other. Cassius was the prime mover in the conspiracy against Cæsar, and he wished to have the coöperation of Brutus, whom the people loved and trusted. Plutarch tells us that when Cassius first solicited his friends to engage in the enterprise, they all consented on condition that Brutus should take the lead, for they believed that his name would be a tower of strength to the movement. If Brutus had to do with it, the world, they thought, would judge the killing of Cæsar to be a just and patriotic act.

Cassius therefore resolved to get Brutus to join the conspiracy, and in their conversation, after the procession had passed on, he cautiously approached the subject. While they talked, a loud shouting was

heard from the place where the celebrations were going on. "What means this shouting?" exclaimed Brutus, "I do fear the people choose Cæsar for their king." Cassius was now sure that Brutus did not favor the idea of making a king of Cæsar. "Since you fear it," said he, "I must think you would not have it so," to which Brutus answered that he would not have it so, although he loved Cæsar well. Then Cassius spoke more boldly, saying that this Cæsar who wanted to be lord and master of Rome was no better than themselves:—

"I was born free as Cæsar ; so were you;
 We both have fed as well; and we can both
 Endure the winter's cold as well as he,
 For once, upon a raw and gusty day,
 The troubled Tiber chafing with her shores,
 Cæsar said to me, 'Dar'st thou, Cassius, now
 Leap in with me into this angry flood,
 And swim to yonder point?' Upon the word,
 Accouter'd as I was, I plung'd in,
 And bade him follow; so, indeed, he did.
 The torrent roar'd; and we did buffet it
 With lusty sinews; throwing it aside
 And stemming it with hearts of controversy.
 But ere we could arrive the point propos'd,
 Cæsar cried, 'Help me, Cassius, or I sink.'
 I, as Æneas, our great ancestor,
 Did from the flames of Trōy upon his shoulder
 The old Anchises bear, so, from the waves of Tiber

Did I the tired Cæsar; And this man
Is now become a god."

While Cassius was speaking more shouting was heard, whereupon Brutus exclaimed:

"Another general shout!
I do believe, that these applauses are
For some new honors that are heap'd on Cæsar."

Then Cassius continued the discourse saying that there was nothing in the name Cæsar or the man to make him any greater than Brutus.

"What should be in that Cæsar?
Why should that name be sounded more than yours?
Write them together, yours is as fair a name;
Sound them, it doth become the mouth as well;
Weigh them, it is as heavy; conjure them,
Brutus will start a spirit as soon as Cæsar.
Now in the names of all the gods at once,
Upon what meat doth this our Cæsar feed,
That he has grown so great?"

Cassius also reminded Brutus of that other Brutus, famous in ancient Roman history, as the leader of the party that expelled the tyrant king Tarquin, and abolished monarchy in Rome:—

"O, you and I have heard our fathers say,
There was a Brutus once that would have brook'd
The eternal devil to keep his state in Rome
As easily as a king."

Marcus Brutus, to whom Cassius was speaking, claimed to be descended from the ancient Brutus, and he understood very well the meaning of this reference to his ancestor. But though perceiving the design of Cassius, he was not yet prepared to enter into it. He was, however, favorable to the enterprise, and promised to give it careful consideration :

“What you have said

I will consider; what you have to say

I will with patience hear, and find a time

Both meet to hear and answer such high things.”

Presently the conversation was interrupted by the return of the procession. Brutus noticed that Cæsar looked angry, and that Calpurnia's cheeks were pale. Something unpleasant had, no doubt, occurred. What it was, Cassius said they would learn from Casca who had been present at the celebrations. But Cæsar, too, had his eyes about him, and casting a suspicious look in the direction where Brutus and his companion stood, he remarked to Antony that Cassius was a dangerous man, being too much given to thinking.

Cæsar. Let me have men about me that are fat;

Sleek-headed men, and such as sleep o' nights;

Yond' Cassius has a lean and hungry look;

He thinks too much: such men are dangerous.

Antony. Fear him not, Cæsar, he's not dangerous.
He is a noble Roman, and well given.

Cæsar. Would he were fatter: — But I fear him not:
Yet if my name were liable to fear,
I do not know the man I should avoid
So soon as that spare Cassius. He reads much;
He is a great observer, and he looks
Quite through the deeds of men; he loves no plays,
As thou dost, Antony; he hears no music;
Such men as he be never at heart's ease
While they behold a greater than themselves,
And therefore are they very dangerous.

The conqueror and his train now passed on, and Casca joining Brutus and Cassius, related to them how at the Lupercalia festival Antony had offered Cæsar a crown. "I saw Mark Antony offer him a crown," said Casca, "and he put it by [pushed it away from him] once, but for all that, to my thinking, he would fain have had it. Then he offered it to him again; then he put it by again; but, to my thinking, he was very loath to lay his fingers off it. And then he offer'd it the third time; he put it the third time by: and still as he refus'd it, the rabblement [crowd] shouted and clapp'd their hands and threw up their caps and utter'd such a deal of breath because Cæsar refus'd the crown, that it had almost choked Cæsar."

After some further conversation, Brutus and

Casca retired. Cassius was well pleased in thinking that he would be able to win Brutus over to the conspiracy; still he felt that he should have to proceed with much caution, for Brutus, he knew, loved Cæsar, and was too honorable a man to raise hand against him unless satisfied that the safety and welfare of his country required it. But Cassius had a plan by which he hoped to produce the desired impression on the mind of the noble young Roman. He would employ men to throw in at his windows papers in different handwritings, as if coming from different persons, all expressing high respect for his name, and making reference to the ambition of Cæsar.

“I will this night

In several hands, in at the windows throw,
As if they came from several citizens,
Writings all tending to the great opinion
That Rome holds of his name; wherein obscurely
Cæsar’s ambition shall be glanced at.”

Some time after this a great storm of thunder and lightning swept over the city. It was on the night before the Ides of March. The people were much alarmed, both by the violence of the tempest and by the reports of miraculous sights in the streets. Casca rushing breathless and with drawn sword into one of the public squares, and finding Cicero there, told him about what he himself had seen and heard

of. "I saw a slave whose hands, though surrounded with flame as large as twenty torches, yet remained unburned. Near the Capitol I met a lion and drew my sword upon him, but the beast, only glaring at me, passed by without offering me harm. A crowd of women, pale with terror, declared they saw men, all on fire, walk up and down the streets. Yesterday at noon an owl sat in the market place, hooting and shrieking."

These, Casca thought, were fearful omens, which meant that something unusual and important was about to happen. "Strange things indeed they are," said Cicero, "but men may misinterpret such occurrences." He then bade Casca good night, and presently Cassius came along. Their talk soon turned upon Cæsar and his ambition, and Casca spoke of the rumor that the senators intended next day to make the dictator king.

"Indeed, they say the senators to-morrow
Mean to establish Cæsar as a king ;
And he shall wear his crown by sea and land,
In every place, save here in Italy."

Upon this Cassius declared for himself that he would not live to see Cæsar king.

"I know where I will wear this dagger then,
Cassius from bondage will deliver Cassius."

Casca being in the same frame of mind, it was not difficult to induce him to join in the enterprise, in which Cassius had already enlisted several citizens of high rank and influence. All that was now wanted was the help of Brutus, and the conspirators resolved that they would call upon him during the night. "He sits high in the people's hearts," said Casca, "and that which in us would appear a crime, his approval will change to virtue and worthiness."

Meanwhile Brutus was in his own house pondering over what Cassius had said to him. Having little inclination to sleep, though it was late in the night, he walked in his garden, thinking on the ambition of Cæsar and the evils which it threatened to bring upon Rome. "Only by his death," he said, "can we be safe. I have no personal cause to hate him. It is for the general good I am concerned."

While Brutus was thus considering the question, one of his servants brought him a letter which had been found at the window, and opening it he read these words:

*Brutus thou sleep'st : awake and see thyself.
Shall Rome, etc. Speak, strike, redress !*

This was one of the papers which Cassius had got his friend Cinna to put in several places where Brutus would be sure to find them. What did it mean, Brutus asked himself.

“‘Brutus, thou sleep'st: awake!’

Such instigations have been often dropp'd

Where I have took them up.

‘Shall Rome, etc.’ Thus must I piece it out:

Shall Rome stand under one man's awe? What! Rome?

My ancestors did from the streets of Rome

The Tarquin drive, when he was call'd a king.

‘Speak, strike, redress!’ Am I entreated then

To speak and strike? O Rome, I make thee promise;

If the redress will follow, thou receivest

Thy full petition at the hand of Brutus!”

At this moment a knocking was heard at the gate. It was Cassius with the other conspirators: Casca, Decius Brutus (cousin of Marcus), Cinna, Cimber and Trebonius. They were all admitted, and then they made their plans for killing Cæsar that very day (for day had already dawned) at the Capitol. “But it is doubtful yet,” said Cassius, “whether Cæsar will come forth. Perhaps the terror of this night may hold him from the Capitol to-day, for of late he has become superstitious.” “Never fear that,” said Decius Brutus, “I can persuade him. I can give his humor the true bent, and I will bring him to the Capitol.”

Meantime, there was much uneasiness at the house of Cæsar, for Calpurnia had had bad dreams. In her sleep she had thrice cried out, “Help! they murder Cæsar,” and, waking in the early morning,

she begged her husband to remain at home that day. She told him of horrible sights that had been seen out of doors during the night—of dead men walking out of their graves, of warriors fighting in the clouds.

“A lioness hath whelped in the streets;
And graves have yawn'd, and yielded up their dead:
Fierce fiery warriors fought upon the clouds,
In ranks and squadrons, and right form of war,
Which drizzled blood upon the Capitol:
The noise of battle hurtled in the air,
Horses did neigh, and dying men did groan;
And ghosts did shriek, and squeal about the streets,
O Cæsar! these things are beyond all use,
And I do fear them.”

But the brave Cæsar had no fear. If it were the will of the gods, he said, that evil were to happen to him, it could not be avoided. As for the wonderful events of the night why should they concern him any more than the citizens in general? Calpurnia, however, would have it that they were meant as a warning to Cæsar.

“When beggars die there are no comets seen,
The heavens themselves blaze forth the death of princes.”

Still Cæsar was not persuaded. What of it, he said, though the “necessary end” of all were to come to him that day?

"Cowards die many times before their deaths;
 The valiant never taste of death but once.
 Of all the wonders that I yet have heard,
 It seems to me most strange that men should fear;
 Seeing that death, a necessary end,
 Will come, when it will come."

But the augurs, who had been consulted, warned
 Cæsar that he must not stir forth, for all the signs
 foreboded evil. Therefore, though he had no fear
 for himself, he would have yielded to his wife's en-
 treaties, and he was on the point of sending a mes-
 sage to the Senate saying that he would not come,
 when Decimus Brutus entered, and by artful persua-
 sion soon succeeded in accomplishing his purpose.
 "The Senate," he said, "have concluded

To give this day a crown to mighty Cæsar.
 If you shall send them word you will not come
 Their minds may change. Besides, it were a mock
 Apt to be render'd, for some one to say,
 'Break up the Senate till another time
 When Cæsar's wife shall meet with better dreams,'
 If Cæsar hide himself, shall they not whisper
 'Lo, Cæsar is afraid?' "

These arguments had the desired effect, and
 Cæsar, turning to his wife said:

"How foolish do your fears seem now, Calpurnia!
 I am ashamed I did yield to them.
 Give me my robe, for I will go."

On his way to the Capitol Cæsar was attended by a numerous retinue of distinguished citizens. The soothsayer was there too, and Cæsar, happening to see him, exclaimed, as if in contempt of the man's former warning: "The Ides of March are come," to which the soothsayer replied, "Ay, Cæsar, but not gone."

There was in the crowd another man who tried to warn him, and he put a paper into Cæsar's hand which, had he read it, might have defeated the whole conspiracy. This was Artemidorus, a teacher of oratory, who, being acquainted with several of the associates of Brutus and Cassius, had obtained information of their plot. The paper contained this message:

"Cæsar, beware of Brutus; take heed of Cassius; come not near Casca; have an eye to Cinna; trust not Trebonius; mark well Metellus Cimber; Decius Brutus loves thee not; thou hast wronged Caius Ligarius. There is but one mind in all these men, and it is bent against Cæsar. If thou beest not immortal, look about you; security gives way [that is, unguardedness opens a way] to conspiracy. The mighty gods defend thee!" "ARTEMIDORUS."

But Decius had taken care that another paper should be handed to Cæsar to occupy his attention, and so the warning of Artemidorus was not read.

Decius. Trebonius doth desire you to o'er-read,
At your best leisure, this his humble suit.

Artemidorus. O, Cæsar, read mine first; for mine's a suit.
That touches Cæsar nearer: Read it, great Cæsar.

Cæsar. What touches us ourself, shall be last serv'd.

Artemidorus. Delay not, Cæsar; read it instantly.

Cæsar. What, is the fellow mad?

Cassius. What, urge you your petitions in the street?
Come to the Capitol.

Presently Cæsar entered the Senate house. All the conspirators were there, and according to a pre-arranged plan, they all, one after another, approached the dictator and petitioned him for the pardon of Cimber's brother who, some time before, had been banished from Rome. Cæsar sternly refused. He would not yield even to the prayer of Brutus, whom he loved.

Then Casca, suddenly raising his dagger and exclaiming, "Speak, hands, for me!" stabbed Cæsar in the neck. Instantly weapons flashed on every side, and Cæsar saw that resistance was useless. When he beheld Brutus striking at him, he drew his mantle over his face and resigned himself to his fate, uttering the famous words, "And you, too, Brutus!" He fell, pierced by many wounds, at the foot of a statue of the great Pompey, which stood close to the consul's chair. The conspirators, seeing the deed accomplished, shouted in triumph that

Rome was now free, since the tyrant was dead. Cinna exclaimed:

“Liberty! Freedom! Tyranny is dead!
Run hence, proclaim, cry it about the streets.”

Brutus, when he saw a number of the senators and people fleeing in terror, called to them to stand still and have no dread:

“People and senators, be not affrighted;
Fly not, stand still, ambition's debt is paid.”

Mark Antony had already fled to his own house, fearing that as he had been the close friend of Cæsar, the conspirators might have designs against his life, too. But he sent his servant to Brutus to inquire whether he might safely come and learn for what reason Cæsar had been killed.

“If Brutus will vouchsafe that Antony
May safely come to him, and be resolv'd [informed]
How Cæsar hath deserv'd to lie in death,
Mark Antony will not love Cæsar dead
So well as Brutus living; but will follow
The fortunes and affairs of noble Brutus.”

Brutus returned a friendly answer, inviting Antony to come at once, and assuring him that no injury should be done to him. Antony accordingly hastened to the Senate house, and when he beheld

the dead body of Cæsar, he exclaimed in accents of grief:

“O mighty Cæsar! Dost thou lie so low?
Are all thy conquests, glories, triumphs, spoils,
Shrunk to this little measure? Fare thee well.”

He then said to Brutus and his associates that, if they wished his death, there was no time so fit for him to die as that hour in which Cæsar had died. Brutus replied that they did not desire his death, but that, on the contrary, they sought his good will and fellowship.

“O Antony, beg not your death of us.
Though now we must appear bloody and cruel,
As, by our hands and this our present act,
You see we do, yet see you but our hands
And this the bleeding business they have done;
Our hearts you see not; they are pitiful;
And pity to the general wrong of Rome
Hath done this deed on Cæsar. For your part
Our arms in strength of manhood, and our hearts
Of brothers' temper, do receive you in,
With all kind love, good thoughts, and reverence.”

Antony, however, was not disposed to make friends with the men who had killed him who had been his greatest friend, yet, he said, if they would tell him wherein Cæsar had been dangerous, he might even love them.

"Friends am I with you all and love you all,
Upon this hope, that you shall give me reasons
Why and wherein Cæsar was dangerous."

Brutus replied that they had reasons which should satisfy Antony, though he were the son of Cæsar. Antony then begged permission to honor his dead friend by delivering an address at his funeral. This request was granted, but Brutus resolved that he himself would first speak to the people and tell them why Cæsar had been killed.

"I will myself into the pulpit first
And show the reason of our Cæsar's death."

Brutus and Cassius then repaired to the forum where a vast multitude of citizens had assembled, all excited by the news which had already spread through the city, and all impatient to hear what explanation would be offered. "We will be satisfied, let us be satisfied," they cried as they crowded around Brutus, who now ascended the pulpit or platform from which Roman orators usually addressed the people. There was much noise and confusion, but at length silence was obtained, and Brutus began to speak:

"Romans, countrymen, and lovers [friends]! hear me for my cause, and be silent, that you may hear: believe me for mine honor, and have respect to mine

honor, that you may believe: censure [judge] me in your wisdom, and awake your senses, that you may the better judge. If there be any in this assembly, any dear friend of Cæsar's, to him I say, that Brutus' love to Cæsar was no less than his. If then that friend demand why Brutus rose against Cæsar, this is my answer:—Not that I loved Cæsar less, but that I loved Rome more. Had you rather Cæsar were living and die all slaves, than that Cæsar were dead, to live all free men? As Cæsar loved me, I weep for him; as he was fortunate, I rejoice at it; as he was valiant, I honor him: but, as he was ambitious, I slew him. There is tears for his love; joy for his fortune; honor for his valor; and death for his ambition. Who is here so base that would be a bondman? If any, speak; for him have I offended. Who is here so rude that would not be a Roman? If any, speak; for him have I offended. Who is here so vile that will not love his country? If any, speak; for him have I offended. I pause for a reply."

Here there were loud cries from the audience of "None, Brutus, none," and the speaker continued:

"Then none have I offended. I have done no more to Cæsar than you shall do to Brutus. The question of his death is enrolled in the Capitol; his glory not extenuated, wherein he was worthy, nor his offenses enforced, for which he suffered death."

At this point Antony and several of his friends entered, bearing with them the body of Cæsar, for it was in the forum that funeral orations in honor of illustrious citizens were always delivered. Brutus then resumed, and concluded his speech in these words :

“ Here comes his body, mourned by Mark Antony: who, though he had no hand in his death, shall receive the benefit of his dying, and a place in the commonwealth ; as which of you shall not ? With this I depart—that, as I slew my best lover for the good of Rome, I have the same dagger for myself, when it shall please my country to need my death.”

This speech seemed to have, for the moment at least, satisfied the multitude, for when the speaker finished there were loud shouts of applause, some of the people crying out that they should honor Brutus by carrying him home in triumph to his house. But presently Antony ascended the pulpit, and soon he changed the mood of the fickle crowd. He talked of Cæsar’s great exploits, and he reminded them that Cæsar had three times refused the crown.

“ You all did see that on the Lupercal
I thrice presented him a kingly crown,
Which he did thrice refuse: was this ambition?
Yet Brutus says he was ambitious.”



MARK ANTONY ADDRESSING THE PEOPLE.

(142)

He spoke also of a will, which Cæsar had made, leaving his gardens and orchards for public pleasure grounds, and, besides, leaving a large sum of money to be divided among the citizens. Antony at first pretended that he did not wish to read the will, lest it might excite the people too much, and when they cried out, "We'll hear the will, read it, Mark Antony," he still hesitated.

"Have patience, gentle friends, I must not read it;
It is not meet you know how Cæsar lov'd you.
You are not wood, you are not stones, but men;
And, being men, hearing the will of Cæsar,
It will inflame you, it will make you mad: "

This, of course, made them all the more eager to hear it, as the artful orator well knew it would, so they demanded the will, and at the same time began to exclaim in angry words against the men who killed Cæsar, — "They were villains, murderers: the will! read the will." But Antony was resolved to inflame still more the passions of his hearers, and he continued :

"You will compel me, then, to read the will?
Then make a ring about the corpse of Cæsar,
And let me show you him that made the will.
Shall I descend? and will you give me leave?"

Then there were shouts of "Come down," "You

shall have leave," "Room for Antony, most noble Antony." Whereupon, descending from the pulpit and raising up Cæsar's mantle, he showed it to the multitude, pointing out, while he proceeded with his speech, the rents made in it by the swords of the assassins.

"If you have tears, prepare to shed them now.
 You all do know this mantle: I remember
 The first time ever Cæsar put it on;
 'Twas on a summer's evening in his tent;
 That day he overcame the Nervii:—
 Look! in this place ran Cassius' dagger through:
 See, what a rent the envious Casca made:
 Through this, the well beloved Brutus stabb'd;
 And, as he pluck'd his cursed steel away,
 Mark how the blood of Cæsar follow'd it.
 As rushing out of doors, to be resolv'd
 If Brutus so unkindly knock'd or no;
 For Brutus, as you know, was Cæsar's angel:
 Judge, O you gods, how dearly Cæsar lov'd him.
 This was the most unkindest cut of all:
 For when the noble Cæsar saw him stab,
 Ingratitude, more strong than traitor's arms,
 Quite vanquish'd him: then burst his mighty heart;
 And, in his mantle muffling up his face,
 Even at the base of Pompey's statuë,
 Which all the while ran blood, great Cæsar fell.
 O, what a fall was there, my countrymen.
 Then I, and you, and all of us fell down,
 Whilst bloody treason flourish'd over us."

In this strain Antony continued to speak until the people were stirred up to the highest pitch of fury, and they began to cry wildly for vengeance, declaring that they would kill the "traitors." The orator now reminded them of the will, which in their mad excitement they had almost forgotten, and again he continued :

"Here is the will, and under Cæsar's seal.
To every Roman citizen he gives,
To every several man, seventy-five drachmas.*
Moreover, he hath left you all his walks,
His private arbors and new-planted orchards,
On this side Tiber; he hath left them you,
And to your heirs forever, common pleasures,
To walk abroad, and recreate yourselves.
Here was a Cæsar! when comes such another?"

Thus Antony concluded his speech. The citizens in a frenzy of rage, resolved that after having burned Cæsar's body, according to the funeral custom of the Romans, they would set fire to the houses of the murderers.

"We'll burn his body in the holy place,
And with the brands fire the traitors' houses.
Take up the body."

Voices. "Go fetch fire. Pluck down benches.
Pluck down forms, windows, anything."

* About fourteen American dollars.

The vast crowd of citizens then left the forum bearing with them the corpse, and after they had departed, Antony exultingly exclaimed:

“Now let it work. Mischief, thou art afoot.
Take thou what course thou wilt.”

Soon after these events, Oc-ta'vi-us (grand-nephew of Cæsar), Antony, and Lep'i-dus became the rulers of the empire. They were known as the Second Triumvirate. The conspirators, fearing the vengeance of the populace, had fled from the city. Brutus and Cassius raised forces in Greece and Asia to fight the Triumvirs, who had become tyrants and had cruelly put to death a number of prominent citizens, merely on suspicion that they had not been friendly to Cæsar. At Phi-lip'pi, in Mac'e-do'ni-a, the final struggle took place. There two great battles were fought between the two armies, one led by Octavius and Antony, the other by Brutus and Cassius. Some time before these engagements the forces of Brutus and Cassius were encamped at Sardis in Asia Minor. Here, as Brutus was one night sitting in his tent, reading by the light of a taper, the ghost of Cæsar appeared to him. When he first saw the figure, he thought it was the weakness of his eyes that shaped the “monstrous apparition,” but then it moved towards him, and he boldly questioned it.

“Ha! who comes here?

I think it is the weakness of mine eyes
That shapes this monstrous apparitiön.
It comes upon me. Art thou anything?
Art thou some god, some angel, or some devil,
That makest my blood cold and my hair to stare?
Speak to me what thou art.

Ghost. Thy evil spirit, Brutus.

Brutus. Why comest thou?

Ghost. To tell thee thou shalt see me at Philippi.

Brutus. Well; then I shall see thee again?

Ghost. Ay, at Philippi. (*Ghost vanishes.*)

Brutus. Why, I will see thee at Philippi, then.

Now I have taken heart thou vanishest:

Ill spirit, I would hold more talk with thee.”

At the battle of Philippi Brutus and Cassius were defeated, and rather than fall as prisoners into the hands of the enemy, they put an end to their own lives. Each died by rushing upon the point of his own sword held in the hand of his servant. As Cassius fell he exclaimed:

“Cæsar, thou art reveng'd
Even with the sword that kill'd thee.”

Brutus died exclaiming to his servant, Strato, who held the sword:

“Farewell, good Strato.—Cæsar, now be still:
I kill'd not thee with half so good a will.”

When Antony heard of the death of Brutus, he spoke in eloquent words of the noble Roman's purity of motive and patriotic purpose in what he did against Cæsar.

“This was the noblest Roman of them all:
All the conspirators save only he
Did that they did in envy of great Cæsar;
He only, in a general honest thought
And common good to all, made one of them.
His life was gentle, and the elements
So mix'd in him that Nature might stand up
And say to all the world ‘This was a man!’”

OPINIONS OF EMINENT WRITERS ON THE CHARACTER OF CÆSAR.

I. ANCIENT AUTHORS.

PLUTARCH — *Lives*.

HIS ACHIEVEMENTS BEAR AWAY THE PALM.

Whether we compare him with the generals of his own time, or those who flourished a little before him, Cæsar's achievements bear away the palm. One he surpassed in the difficulty of the scene of action, another in the extent of the countries he subdued; this, in the number and strength of the enemies he overcame, that, in the savage manners and treacherous disposition of the people he humanized; one in mildness and clemency to his prisoners, another in bounty and magnificence to his troops; and all, in the number of battles that he won.

His whole conduct showed that he did not accumulate riches in the course of his wars, to minister to luxury, or to serve any pleasures of his own; but that he laid them up in a common bank, as prizes to

be obtained by distinguished valor, and that he considered himself no farther rich than as he was in a condition to do justice to the merit of his soldiers. A thing that contributed to make the soldiers invincible was their seeing Cæsar always take his share in danger, and never desire any exemption from labor and fatigue.

As for his exposing his person to danger, they were not surprised at it, because they knew his passion for glory, but they were astonished at his patience under toil, so far in all appearance above his bodily powers. For he was of a slender make, fair, of a delicate constitution, and subject to violent headaches and epileptic fits.

He was a good horseman in his early years, and brought that exercise to such perfection by practice, that he could sit a horse at full speed with his hands behind him.

CICERO — *Letters.*

DIGNITY, JUSTICE AND GOOD SENSE.

In Cæsar I find a mild and forgiving disposition. To this must be added the extraordinary pleasure he takes in talents of the highest order. He is a man of most acute judgment and much foresight. I am constantly struck by the dignity, justice, and good sense of Cæsar.

SUETONIUS—*Lives of the Casars.*

PERFECT IN THE USE OF ARMS.

He was perfect in the use of arms, an accomplished rider, and able to endure fatigue beyond all belief. On a march, he used to go at the head of his troops, sometimes on horseback, but oftener on foot, with his head bare in all kinds of weather. He would travel post in a light carriage without baggage, at the rate of a hundred miles a day; and if he was stopped by floods in the rivers, he swam across, or floated on skins inflated with wind, so that he often anticipated intelligence of his movements.

In his expeditions, it is difficult to say whether his caution or his daring was the more conspicuous. He never marched his army by roads which were exposed to ambuscades, without having previously examined the nature of the ground by his scouts.

He not only fought pitched battles, but made sudden attacks when an opportunity offered; often at the end of a march, and sometimes during the most violent storms, when nobody could imagine he would stir. Nor was he ever backward in fighting, until towards the end of his life. He then was of opinion that the oftener he had been crowned with success, the less he ought to expose himself to new hazards; and that nothing he could gain by a vic-

tory would compensate for what he might lose by a miscarriage. He never defeated the enemy without driving them from their camp, and giving them no time to rally their forces. When the issue of a battle was doubtful, he sent away all the horses, and his own first, that he and his men, having no means of flight, might be under the greater necessity of standing their ground.

SALLUST—*Catiline Conspiracy.*

EMINENT BY GENEROSITY AND MUNIFICENCE.

Cæsar grew eminent by generosity and munificence. He was esteemed for his humanity and benevolence. He acquired renown by giving, relieving and pardoning. In him there was a refuge for the unfortunate. His easiness of temper was admired. He had applied himself to a life of energy and activity. Intent upon the interest of his friends, he was neglectful of his own. He refused nothing to others that was worthy of acceptance, while for himself he desired great power.

VELLEIUS PATERCULUS—*History of Rome.*

FIRST OF ALL HIS COUNTRYMEN IN PERSONAL BEAUTY,

In personal beauty he was the first of all his countrymen; in vigor of mind indefatigable; liberal

to excess; in spirit elevated above the nature and conception of man; in the grandeur of his designs, the celerity of his military operations, and in his cheerful endurance of dangers, exactly resembling Alexander the Great when free from passion.

QUINTILIAN.

SPOKE WITH THE SAME ENERGY WITH WHICH HE FOUGHT.

If Cæsar had devoted himself to the forum only, no other Roman orator could have been named as a rival to Cicero. He possessed so much force, such acuteness, and liveliness, that it appears that he spoke with the same energy with which he fought, and his oratory was adorned with a wonderful elegance of language, to which he gave particular attention.

II. MODERN AUTHORS.

DR. SMITH — *Classical Dictionary*.

THE GREATEST MAN OF ANTIQUITY.

Julius Cæsar was the greatest man of antiquity. He was gifted by nature with the most various talents, and was distinguished by the most extraordinary attainments in the most diversified pursuits. He was at one and the same time a general, a statesman, a lawgiver, a jurist, an orator, a poet, a histo-

rian, a philologist, a mathematician and an architect. He was equally fitted to excel in all, and has given proofs that he would have surpassed almost all other men in any subject to which he devoted the energies of his extraordinary mind. During the whole of his busy life he found time for literary pursuits, and was the author of many works, the most of which have been lost. The purity of his Latin and the clearness of his style were celebrated among the ancients themselves, and are conspicuous in his Commentaries, which are his only works that have come down to us.

ANTHONY TROLLOPE—*The Commentaries of Cæsar.*

A CAREER UNEQUALLED IN HISTORY.

The common consent of reading men will probably acknowledge that there is no name so great as that of Julius Cæsar.

It may perhaps be fairly said that the Commentaries of Cæsar are the beginning of modern history.

That he had done his work, and that he died in time to save his name and fame from the evil deeds, of which unlimited power in the state would too probably have caused the tyrant to be guilty, was perhaps not the least fortunate circumstance in a career which for good fortune has been unequalled in history.

DR. LIDDELL — *History of Rome.*

UTTERLY CARELESS OF MEANS TO GAIN HIS END.

As a general he had few superiors; as a statesman no equal. That which stamps him as a man of true greatness is the entire absence of vanity and self-conceit from his character. If it were not known that Cæsar was the narrator of his own campaigns, no one could guess that cold and dispassionate narrative to be from his pen. His genial temper and easy, unaffected manners bear testimony to the same point. It is well known, indeed, that he paid great attention to his personal appearance—a foible which he shared in common with many great men equally free from other vanity. In youth he was strikingly handsome. His hard life and unremitting activity furrowed his face with lines, and left him with that meagre visage which is made familiar to us from his coins. To the same cause is to be attributed his liability in later life to fits of an epileptic nature. But even in these days he was sedulous in arranging his robes, and was pleased to have the privilege of wearing a laurel crown to hide the scantiness of his hair. He seldom, if ever, allowed pleasure to interfere with business.

As a general, Cæsar was probably no less inferior to Pompey than Sylla to Marius. Yet his successes

in war, achieved by a man who, in his forty-ninth year, had hardly seen a camp, add to our conviction of his real genius. Those successes were due not so much to scientific and calculated maneuvers, as to rapid audacity of movement and perfect mastery over the wills of men. That he caused the death and captivity of some million of Gauls, to provide treasure and form an army for his political purposes, is shocking to us; but it was not so to Roman morality. Any Roman commander, with like powers, except, perhaps, Cato, would have acted in like manner.

But the clemency with which Cæsar spared the lives of his opponents in the civil war, and the easy indulgence with which he received them into favor, were peculiarly his own. His political career was troubled by no scruples; to gain his end he was utterly careless of the means. But before we judge him severely, we must remember the manner in which the Marian party had been trampled under foot by Sylla and the Senate. If, however, the mode in which he rose to power was questionable, the mode in which he exercised it was admirable. By the action of constant civil broils the constitutional system of Rome had given way to anarchy, and there seemed no escape except by submission to the strong domination of one capable man. The

only effect of Cæsar's fall was to cause a renewal of bloodshed for another half generation; and then his work was finished by a far less noble and generous ruler. Those who slew Cæsar were guilty of a great crime and a still greater blunder.

Encyclopædia Britannica.

COURSE OF HISTORY MARKED OUT BY HIS GENIUS.

It is difficult to see how such a man could have been produced by the wants of any age, but there is no doubt that the course of future history was marked out in no slight degree by the genius and foresight of this single individual.

CHARLES MERIVALE — *History of the Romans under the Empire.*

NOBLE AMBITION WITH FEARFUL WANT OF MORAL PRINCIPLE.

The gentleness of Cæsar's manners in his intercourse with his associates presents an amiable feature in the character of a man so much their superior. His skill and spirit in historical narration are sufficiently attested by the works which have descended to us under his name. Cæsar could be reading, writing, dictating and listening at the same time. He combined literature with action, humanity with sternness, freethinking with superstition, energy with voluptuousness, a noble and liberal ambition with a fearful want of moral principle.

DR. ARNOLD — *Later Roman Commonwealth.*

NEVER DID ANY MAN OCCASION SO LARGE AN AMOUNT OF HUMAN MISERY.

Cæsar is said to have been in his stature tall, and of fair complexion, but with black and lively eyes. In attention to his person and dress he almost exceeded the bounds of mere neatness; and in gratifying his tastes for villas, furniture, pictures, statues, and in the choice of his slaves, he was accustomed to spare no expense or trouble. He was temperate in his eating and drinking, as became a soldier; and his activity of body corresponded with the extraordinary vigor of his mind. It is a remarkable feature in his character, that he seems to have been alive to so many and such various enjoyments; a lover of every kind of intellectual gratification, from the humblest of the fine arts to the highest and deepest parts of philosophy, enamored at the same time of popular honors, and, above all things, ambitious of political greatness. His Commentaries, which alone of all his writings have reached posterity, are admirably calculated to answer the purpose for which they were designed, the impressing his readers with the most favorable notions of himself. Although the representations which they contain are a continued picture of his abilities and successes, yet, because they are given in a quiet and unpretending

style, they have gained credit for truth and impartiality; and critics in their simplicity, have extolled the modesty of the author, because he speaks of himself in the third person.

As a general it is needless to pronounce his eulogy; we may observe, however, that the quality which most contributed to his success on several occasions was his great activity; and although this may seem a virtue no way peculiar to men of superior minds, yet in the practical business of life there is none which produces more important results. Nor is it, in fact, an ordinary quality when exhibited in persons invested with extensive power; for then it implies quickness and decision in difficulties, than which nothing confers on one man a more commanding superiority over others.

In his political career Cæsar was at once patient and daring; and the uniform success of all his schemes through so many years, must prove his judgment in the choice of means to accomplish his purposes. One weakness he seems to have possessed, and that was vanity; which he indulged unseasonably and fatally in receiving so greedily the honors which were at last heaped upon him, and in disgusting the public feeling by expressing with so little reserve, his sense of his own superiority.

If from the intellectual we turn to the moral

character of Cæsar, the whole range of history can hardly furnish a picture of greater deformity. Never did any man occasion so large an amount of human misery, with so little provocation. In his campaigns in Gaul, he is said to have destroyed one million of men in battle, and to have made prisoners of one million more, many of whom were destined to perish as gladiators, and all were torn from their country and reduced to slavery. The slaughter which he occasioned in the civil wars cannot be computed; nor can we estimate the degree of suffering caused in every part of the empire by his spoliations and confiscations, and by his various acts of extortion and oppression which he tolerated in his followers. When we consider that the sole object of his conquests in Gaul was to enrich himself and discipline his army, that he might be enabled the better to attack his country; and that the sole provocation on which he commenced the civil war, was the resolution of the Senate to recall him from a command which he had already enjoyed for nine years, after having obtained it in the beginning by tumult and violence; we may judge what credit ought to be given him for his clemency in not opening lists of proscription, after his sword had already cut off his principal adversaries and levelled their party with the dust. Yet, after all his crimes, the circum-

stances of his death render him almost an object of compassion; and though it cannot be said of his assassins that

“Their greater crime made his like specks appear,
From which the sun in glory is not clear,”

yet we naturally sympathize with the victim, when the murderers, by having abetted or countenanced his offenses, had deprived themselves of all just title to punish them, and when his fall was only accomplished by the treachery of assassination.

DE QUINCY — *Essay on Cæsar.*

WITHOUT HIM THERE WOULD HAVE BEEN NO PERFECT ROME.

Rome has not been repeated; neither has Cæsar. Cæsar and Rome have flourished and expired together.

It is false to say that with Cæsar came the destruction of Roman greatness. Until Cæsar came, Rome was a minor; by him she attained her majority, and fulfilled her destiny.

Without Cæsar there would have been no perfect Rome.

GOLDSMITH — *History of Rome.*

BELOVED AND REVERED BY THE PEOPLE.

Cæsar possessed shining qualities tarnished by ambition only. His talents were such as would

have rendered him victorious at the head of any army, and he would have governed in any republic that had given him birth.

We are at a loss whether most to admire his great abilities or his wonderful fortune. To pretend to say that from the first he planned the subjection of his native country is doing no great credit to his well known penetration as a thousand obstacles lay in the way. Like all successful men he made the best of every occurrence, and his ambition rising with his good fortune, at first being content with humbler aims, he at last began to think of governing the world when he found scarcely any obstacle to oppose his designs. He was beloved and revered by the people, honored and almost adored by his friends, and esteemed and admired even by his enemies.

JAMES ANTHONY FROUDE—*Cæsar*.

HIS AIM FROM FIRST TO LAST WAS BETTER GOVERNMENT.

In his public character, Cæsar may be regarded under three aspects, as a politician, a soldier, and a man of letters.

Like Cicero, Cæsar entered public life at the bar. He belonged to the popular party, but he showed no disposition, like the Gracchi, to plunge into political agitation. His aims were practical. He made war

only upon injustice and oppression, and when he commenced as a pleader he was noted for the energy with which he protected a client whom he believed to have been wronged. Cicero, who often heard him and was not a favorable judge, said that there was a pregnancy in his sentences, and a dignity in his manner which no orator in Rome could approach. But he never spoke to court popularity. His aim from the first to the last was better government, the prevention of bribery and extortion, and the distribution among deserving citizens of some portion of the public land which the rich were stealing.

It was by accident Cæsar took up the profession of a soldier, yet perhaps no commander who ever lived showed greater military genius.

He was rash, but with a calculated rashness, which the event never failed to justify. His greatest successes were due to the rapidity of his movements, which brought him upon the enemy before they heard of his approach. The army was Cæsar's family. In discipline he was lenient to ordinary faults and not careful to make curious inquiries into such things.

Cicero has said of Cæsar's oratory that he surpassed those who had practiced no other art. In his composition, as in his actions, Cæsar is entirely simple. The Commentaries, as historical narra-

tives, are as far superior to any other Latin composition of the kind, as the person of Cæsar himself stands out superior to his contemporaries. Cæsar was the friend of the people, but he indulged in no enthusiasm for liberty. He was too sincere to stoop to unreality. He fought his battles to establish some degree of justice in the government of this world, and he succeeded, though he was murdered for it.

Chambers' Encyclopedia.

AS A HISTORIAN NEVER SURPASSED.

His intellect was marvelously versatile. In everything he excelled. He was not only the first general and statesman of his age, but he was — excepting Cicero — its greatest orator. As a historian he has never been surpassed, and rarely equalled in simplicity and vigor of style, and in the truthfulness with which he narrates events of which he was an eye-witness. He was, in addition, a mathematician, philologist, jurist, and architect, and always took great pleasure in literary society.

GEORGE LONG — *Decline of the Roman Republic.*

SUPERIOR TO WASHINGTON AS A GENERAL BUT INFERIOR AS A MAN.

It is little to say that he was a great general, that he was always vigilant, bold and even rash some-

times, for there are occasions when a general must run great risks, and this was so in the civil war. But we must add that Cæsar took great care of his men, that he looked well after his supplies, that he preferred conquering his enemy by cutting off their food, and he tried to save his soldiers and defeat the enemy with the least loss to himself, as a good general ought to do. He endured as much as he required endurance from his men, and he ran risks of personal danger whenever he thought that it was useful.

Cæsar was a man of letters, an excellent orator, and well versed in the writings of the Greeks; as a Roman he had a competent knowledge of law, and he discharged the functions of a judge with ease and ability; he had a turn for mechanics, astronomy, and for grammar, and a universal capacity.

Cæsar's Commentaries are a manual for a general, the best that ever was written. The two roads to distinction at Rome were oratory and military ability; and Cæsar was both a soldier and an orator.

Washington, who established and administered honestly a new government, was far inferior as a general to Cæsar, who only lived long enough to destroy an old constitution. As a man, the American was immeasurably superior to the Roman, whose career may be better compared with that of the first

Napoleon, not Cæsar's superior in military ability, and greatly below him in nobleness of character. .

THEODOR MOMMSEN — *History of Rome.*

DESIRED NOTHING BUT TO BE FIRST AMONG HIS EQUALS.

His talent for organization was wonderful; never did a statesman so cement his alliances, never did a commander so weld and hold together an army of disconnected and opposing elements, as Cæsar did his coalitions and his legions. Never did a ruler judge his instruments with so penetrating a glance. No man ever knew better how to put the right man in the right place. He was a monarch, but never played at being king. Perfectly pliant and flexible, agreeable and graceful in conversation, obliging to every man, he appeared to desire nothing but to be first among his equals. No matter how much cause his troubled relations with the Senate gave him, he never had recourse to brutality.

Cæsar was a monarch, but he was never afflicted by the giddiness of tyranny. He accomplished the possible, and never neglected the good for the sake of the impossible better. He never disdained to mitigate incurable evils by, at least, palliative measures. But wherever he recognized that fate had spoken, he always submitted. Like every true statesman he served the people not for the sake of reward,

not even for the reward of their love, but sacrificed the favor of his contemporaries for the blessing of the future, and above all for the glory of saving and rejuvenating his nation.

BARTHOLD GEORG NIEBUHR — *Roman History*.

NO GREATER MASTER AMONG ANCIENT PROSE WRITERS.

His genius was most versatile; he possessed an unexampled facility and power in all that could be done by intellect; he had an excellent memory, together with presence of mind, and the firmest reliance on himself and his good fortune, being confident that he must succeed in everything. Owing to this great facility, most of his acquirements were not the fruits of the toilsome drudgery of the school, but of the cultivation and exercise of his great talents; thus it was with his eloquence and style. In the very fact that he owed nothing to art, and everything to himself, lay the chief secret of his wonderful power. He had made himself master of many branches of knowledge; for while they interested him, he devoted to them all his energy and attention. He was particularly remarkable for his acuteness and keen observation; and it is certainly no small honor for grammar that Cæsar was so fond of it; his work on analogy would very likely be as

much superior to all the grammars of that time, as his history was to all other works of the same kind which are founded on personal observation.

That he was unscrupulous in his wars cannot be denied; his Gallic wars are for the most part downright crimes; his conduct towards Vercingetorix was deplorable; it was dictated by an unhallowed ambition; yet he never did anything of the kind against his fellow citizens. His behavior to the Gauls may indeed be accounted for by what we know of the manners of the times. The ruling party at Rome behaved towards Cæsar not only foolishly, but with utter injustice; they ought never to have hindered his offering himself from Gaul as a candidate for the consular dignity. If they had allowed him quietly to get it, matters would not only have gone on better than in Pompey's second and third consulships, but all would very likely have passed off peaceably, and even perhaps beneficially to the Republic. Had it in any way been possible to find a remedy for the disorders of the state, Cæsar was the only man to devise it, and to carry it out.

As to Cæsar's style, everybody knows that there is no greater master among ancient prose writers. The oftener one reads them (the Commentaries) the more one recognizes the hand of a great master.

PROF. BLUNTSCHLI — *Lalor's Cyclopædia of Political Science.*

AS A STATESMAN THE FIRST IN THE ANCIENT WORLD.

Cæsar was more fortunate than Alexander, in this, that his victorious campaigns were mainly fought to subjugate the west of still barbarous Europe. He thus moved with the course of the world's history, and his memory was borne onward by its current. He had no love for the people he conquered and to whom he brought Roman civilization. In the long struggle of the Gauls for freedom from foreign rule Cæsar, who always showed himself generous toward the Romans, practiced all the terrible harshness of the military usages of Rome. He conquered the west exclusively from motives of Roman policy. Cæsar loved Rome as he did himself. Rome was called by destiny to unite in one humanely ordered empire all the nations which had prepared the way for, or had produced, European civilization accessible to the still backward nations of Europe. But no Roman understood this vocation of his country so well as Cæsar, and no one did more to fulfill it than he did. If Rome ever became mistress of the world, Cæsar deserved to become the head of Rome. When he recognized this, and strove for this mastery, he acted not from motives of morbid ambition, as his enemies and

enviers supposed. He desired to be first because he was first. The character and spirit of Rome were personified in him.

He had a great reputation as an orator, even in those days of most brilliant formal eloquence. From his "Commentaries on the Gallic War," we learn to value his smooth and natural style, which describes situations and events so clearly, without pretension or idle ornament. His chief study, however, was the state. Single men of antiquity may be named who surpassed him in all other branches of intellectual activity, but as a statesman he holds unquestionably the first rank in the ancient world.

THOMAS KEIGHTLEY — *History of Rome.*

GENEROUS AND MAGNANIMOUS BUT INSATIABLY AMBITIOUS.

Cæsar was the greatest man Rome, we would almost say the world, ever beheld. Equally the general, the statesman, the orator, and the man of letters and taste, he must have shone in any station and under any form of society. His courage was not merely physical, it was moral; his eloquence was simple and masculine; his taste pure and elegant. He was clement, generous, and magnanimous: but he was also insatiably ambitious; and though not cruel (as no really great man is), he could shed

torrents of blood without remorse when he had any object to gain; and though he enforced the laws when he had the supreme power, he had trampled on them with contempt when they stood in his way.

VICTOR DURUY — *History of Rome.*

DOMINATING THE WORLD AS IT LAY STRETCHED AT HIS FEET.

Cæsar was the most complete man that Rome ever produced, one in whom was shown the most harmonious development of all faculties; an orator of manly utterance; a sober writer, free from the false glitter of hired eloquence; an intrepid soldier from the day when it became necessary, and a general equal to the greatest as soon as he appeared with the armies. His mind, open to the lessons of life, forgot none of the counsels which it gives, and always calm amidst the wildest agitations, was obscured neither by anger nor by passion. Accordingly he saw things in their true light, and went straight at what was practicable. His vices did not disturb his strong intellect, his pleasures never injured his business. Even his victories never dazzled him. Though founder of a military monarchy, he by no means gave the first place to the army; he continued master of his soldiers as of himself, and dominating from the summit of his fortune the

world as it lay stretched at his feet, he never gave way to the intoxication of pride, which has so often clouded the understanding even of superior men.

He had the greatest of advantages — favorable circumstances and mediocrity in his adversaries, but he found another advantage in himself — the talent of transforming the men and the things of the moment into instruments suitable to his plans. As he alone, in the midst of blunderers, had a fixed purpose, his powerful and calm will made everything tend to a single end, and he attained it. What does the astonishing fidelity of the Gauls during the Civil War indicate but that cleverness in appropriating to himself living forces, which is the highest gift of a commander? More than once he did violence to fortune; in his youth by enormous debts; later by military rashness; but his audacity was calculated and his temerity prudent; they allowed him to demand every effort from his friends and soldiers. His army was his family, and he was loved by his soldiers with the most entire devotion. One of his centurions having fallen into the hands of the Pompeians in Africa, refused, though threatened with death, to enroll himself in the enemy's ranks; "Give me ten of my comrades," he said to Scipio, "and five hundred of your men against us, and see what we can do." Further he could boast

as many victories as battles, and only two checks, very quickly and gloriously repaired.

Even on his enemies his charm operated, for he employed against them a weapon new to Rome, clemency; and it was so natural to him that we find it in his writings, where not a word is said hurtful to his enemies. The glory of the great man who fell under the dagger of Brutus does not consist only in military success and wise statesmanship, but also in kindness. Between the two reigns of terror, one preceding him, the other following, he repudiated the savage customs of the Roman people of that time by being unwilling to confiscate or proscribe.

Carpenter's Geographical Reader—Asia

By FRANK G. CARPENTER. Cloth, 12mo, 304 pages. With colored Maps and numerous Illustrations.

Price, 60 cents

In the interest of its subjects, as well as in its artistic, literary, and mechanical execution, this new Geographical Reader is by far the most attractive and noteworthy book of its kind. It combines in one volume studies in geography to supplement the regular text-books in use, and a book of travels adapted to serve as a reading book in school or in the home.

The studies in geography are not mere compilations from other books, or stories of imaginary travels, but are based on actual travel and personal observation. The author, who is an experienced traveler and writer, has given interesting and vivacious descriptions of his recent extended journeys through the different countries of Asia, together with graphic pictures of their native peoples, just as they are found to-day in their homes and at their work. This has been done in such simple language and charming manner as to make each chapter in the book as entertaining as a story.

The interest and effectiveness of the book are greatly enhanced by the illustrations found on almost every page. These are all new, being mostly reproductions from photographs taken by the author on the ground. The book is also well supplied with maps of Asia and all the countries described.

Copies of Carpenter's Geographical Reader will be sent, prepaid, to any address, on receipt of the price, by the Publishers :

American Book Company

New York

Cincinnati

Chicago

GEOGRAPHY

Natural Elementary Geography ..

By JACQUES W. REDWAY, F.R.G.S. Linen Binding,
Quarto, 144 pages. With numerous Maps and Illus-
trations Price, 60 cents

The publication of the Natural Elementary Geography marks a new era in the study and teaching of geography. Some of the important features which distinguish this book from all other primary geographies are:

Central Idea.—The study of man in his geographic relations, leading to the industrial and commercial treatment of countries and cities.

Method—Development of the subject in a perfectly natural manner; hence the title—the Natural Series of Geographies.

Treatment.—Simple, inductive, and progressive.

Maps.—The physical relief maps and colored political maps are distinct and easily read. Those of corresponding divisions are drawn on a uniform scale to facilitate direct comparison of areas.

Illustrations.—The subject-matter is made clear and impressive by attractive and appropriate pictures on almost every page.

Other Special Features.—Topical outlines for language work; exercises in correlation and comparisons; natural subdivisions of continents and countries; use of suggestive questions, etc.

THE NATURAL ADVANCED GEOGRAPHY is in preparation.

An Illustrated Circular describing the plan and method of the Natural Elementary Geography will be sent free to any address on application.

Copies of the Natural Elementary Geography will be sent prepaid to any address, on receipt of the price, by the Publishers:

American Book Company

New York

• Cincinnati •

Chicago

Books for Supplementary Reading

Dana's Plants and their Children	
By Mrs. WILLIAM STARR DANA. Illustrated by Alice Josephine Smith	\$0.65
Kelly's Short Stories of Our Shy Neighbors	
By Mrs. M. A. B. KELLY. Illustrated50
McGuffey's Natural History Readers. Illustrated	
McGuffey's Familiar Animals and their Wild Kindred50
McGuffey's Living Creatures of Water, Land, and Air50
Lockwood's Animal Memoirs. Illustrated	
Part I. Mammals. 317 pages60
Part II. Birds. 397 pages60
Treat's Home Studies in Nature. Illustrated	
By Mrs. MARY TREAT. Part I.—Observations on Birds. Part II.—Habits of Insects. Part III.—Plants that Consume Animals. Part IV.—Flowering Plants95
Monteith's Popular Science Reader	
By JAMES MONTEITH. Illustrated75
Carpenter's Geographical Reader—Asia	
By FRANK G. CARPENTER. With Maps and Illustrations60
The Geographical Reader and Primer	
A series of journeys round the world. Illustrated60
Johonnot's Geographical Reader	
By JAMES JOHONNOT. Illustrated	1.00
Goho's Pennsylvania Reader. Historical and Patriotic	
By STEPHEN O. GOHO. Illustrated50
Shepherd's Historical Reader	
By HENRY E. SHEPHERD	1.00
Van Bergen's Story of Japan	
By R. VAN BERGEN. With Double Map of Japan and Korea and Numerous Illustrations	1.00
Holbrook's 'Round the Year in Myth and Song	
By FLORENCE HOLBROOK. With beautiful Illustrations60

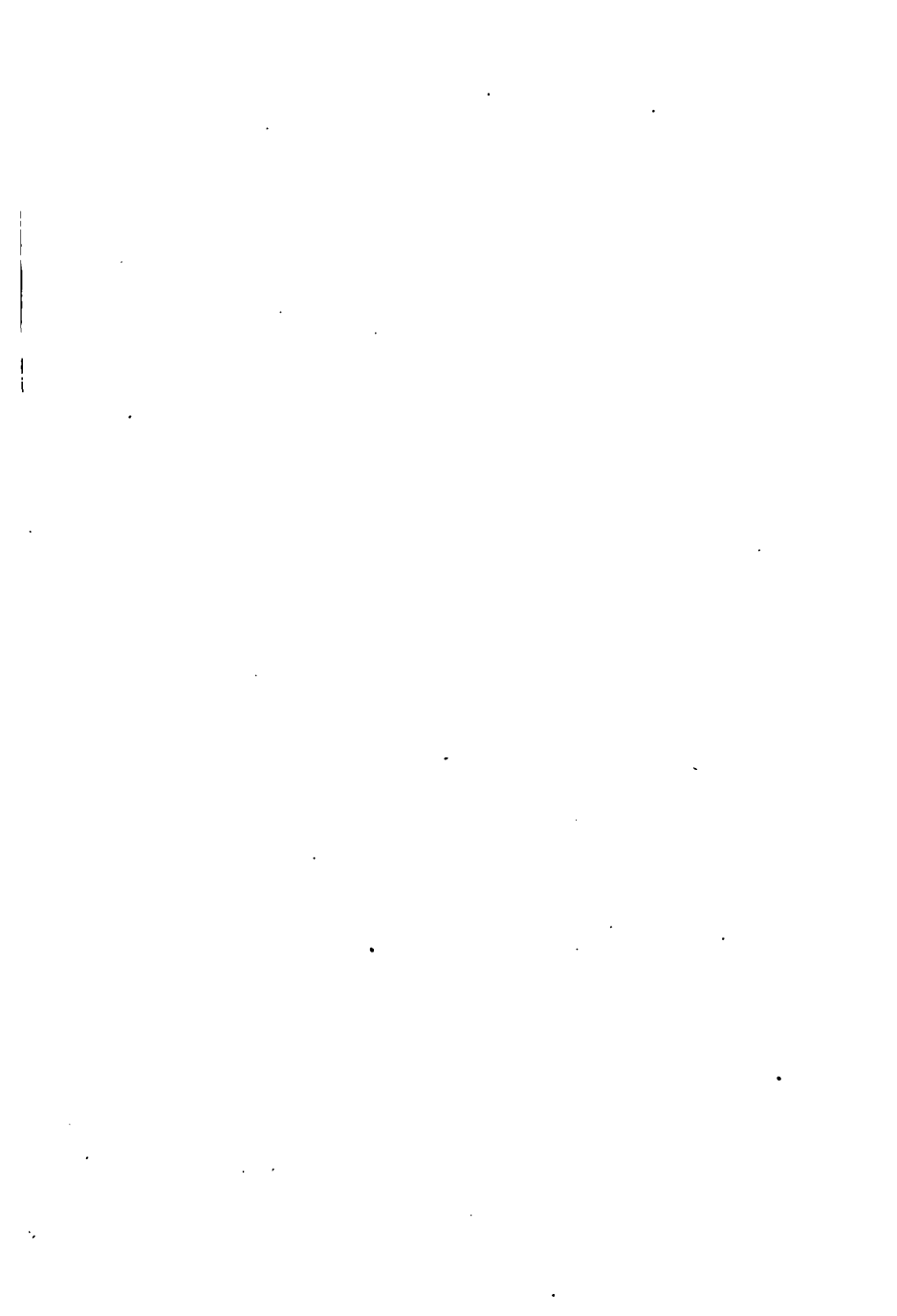
Copies of any of these books will be sent prepaid to any address, on receipt of the price by the Publishers :

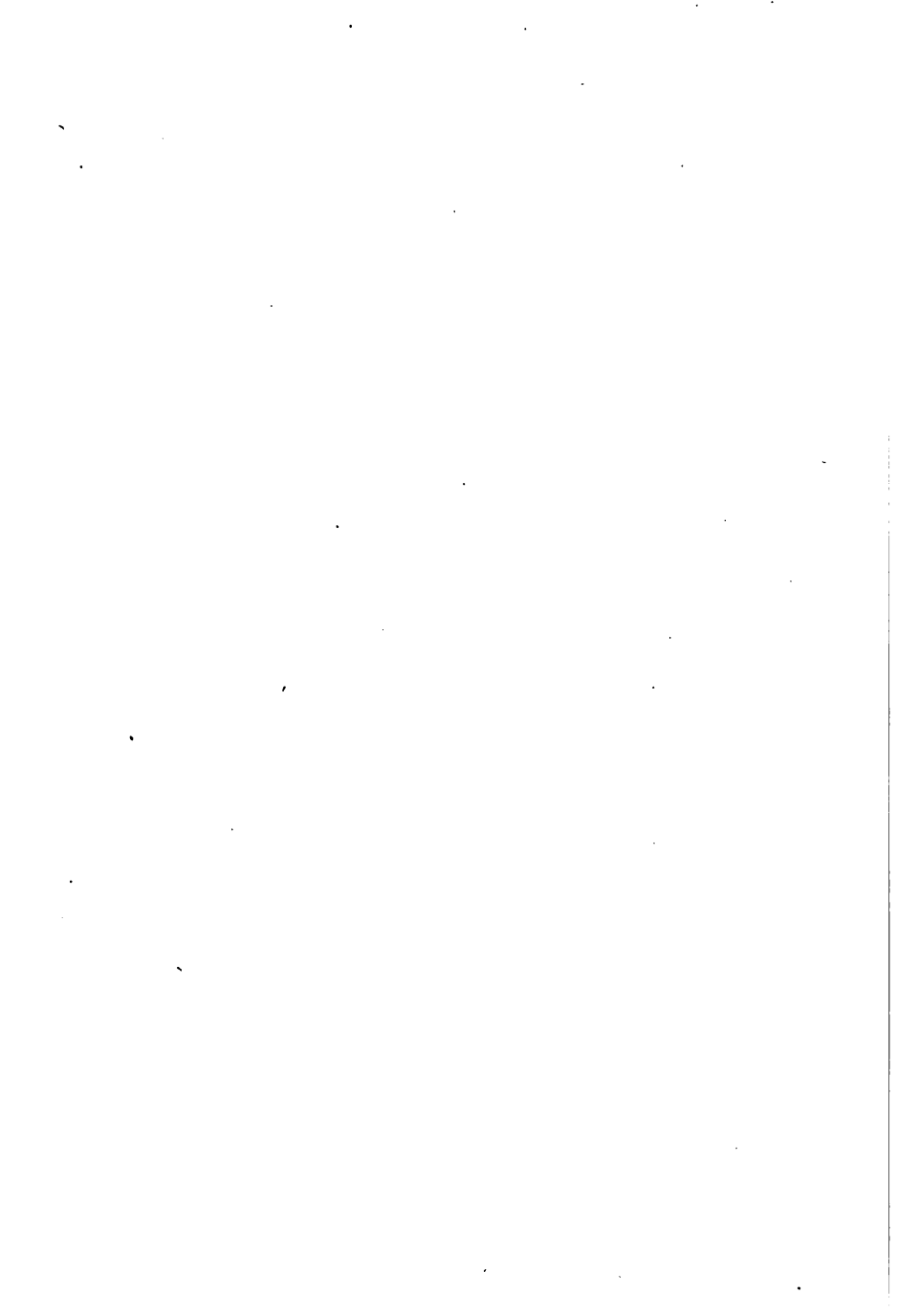
American Book Company

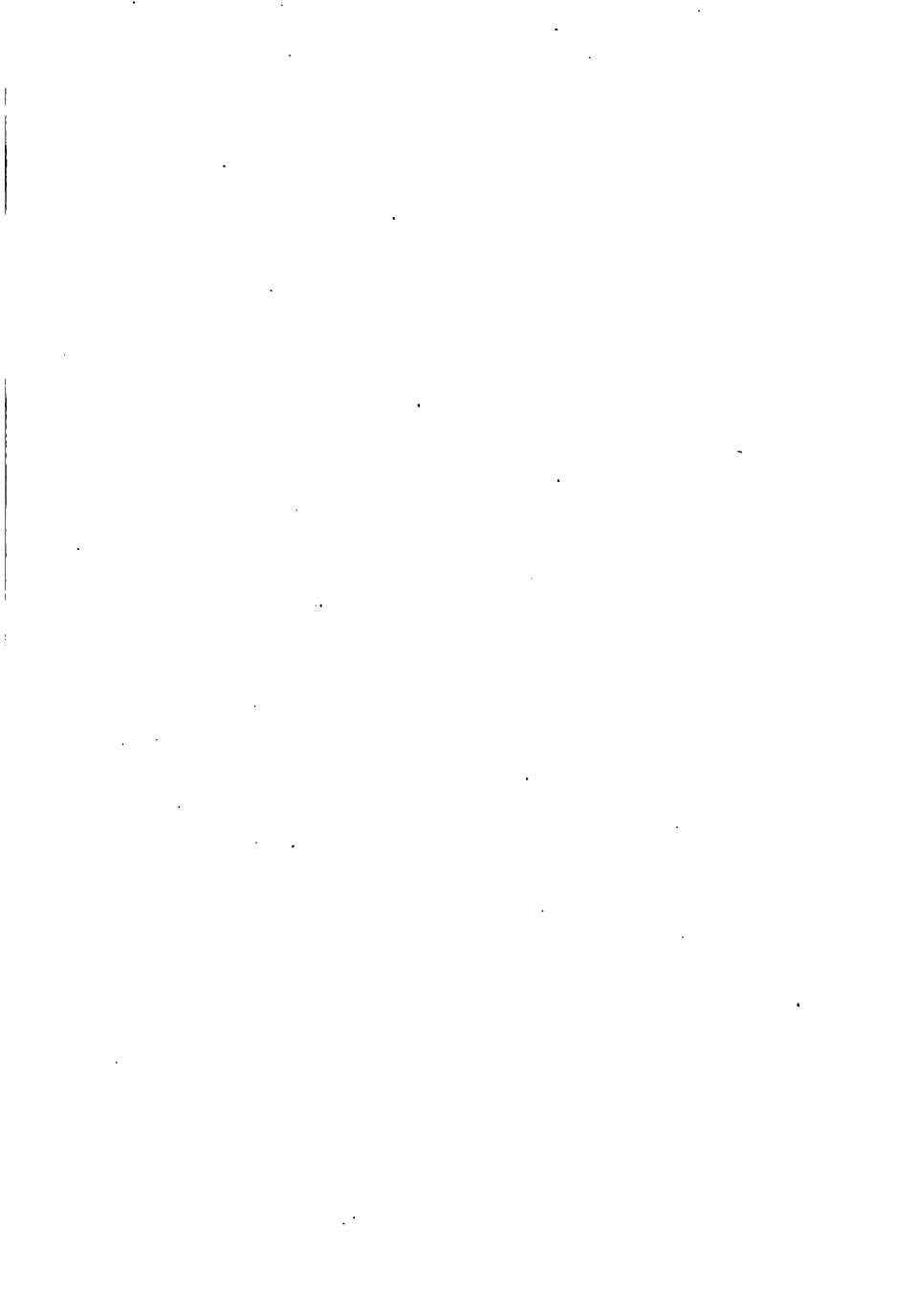
NEW YORK

CINCINNATI

CHICAGO







To avoid fine, this book should be returned on
or before the date last stamped below

SON-9-40

--	--	--

38064

**Clarke, M.
Story of Caesar.**

[illegible]

LIBRARY, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, STANFORD

